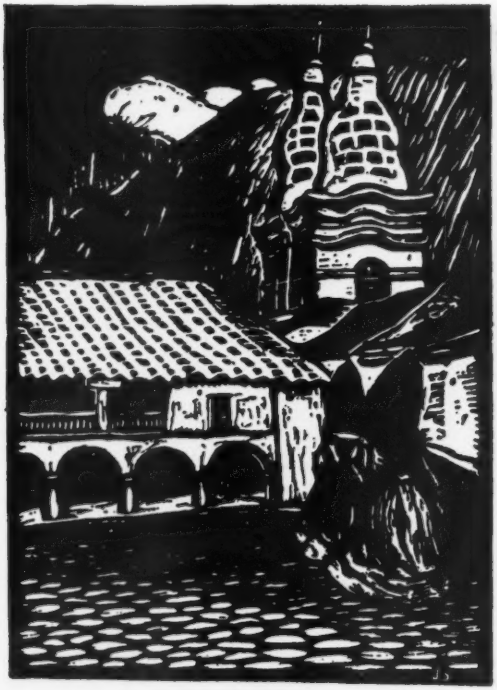
BULLETIN OF THE

Pan American Union



AYACUCHO

E. UNIV. LIBRARY
N. C.

DECEMBER 1941

GOVERNING BOARD
OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

CORDELL HULL, *Chairman*
DIÓGENES ESCALANTE, *Vice Chairman*

ARGENTINA . . . . . FELIPE A. ESPIL
1816 Corcoran Street, Washington, D. C.

BOLIVIA . . . . . LUIS FERNANDO GUACHALLA
Investment Building, Washington, D. C.

BRAZIL . . . . . CARLOS MARTINS
3007 Whitehaven Street, Washington, D. C.

CHILE . . . . . RODOLFO MICHELS
2154 Florida Avenue, Washington, D. C.

COLOMBIA . . . . . GABRIEL TURBAY
1520 Twentieth Street, Washington, D. C.

COSTA RICA . . . . . LUIS FERNÁNDEZ RODRÍGUEZ
2400 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C.

CUBA . . . . . AURELIO F. CONCHESO
2630 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC . . . . . J. M. TRONCOSO
2101 Connecticut Avenue, Washington, D. C.

ECUADOR . . . . . COLÓN ELOY ALFARO
Barr Building, Washington, D. C.

EL SALVADOR . . . . . HÉCTOR DAVID CASTRO
2400 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C.

GUATEMALA . . . . . ADRIÁN RECINOS
1614 Eighteenth Street, Washington, D. C.

HAITI . . . . . FERNAND DENNIS
5017 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C.

HONDURAS . . . . . JULIÁN R. CÁCERES
2611 Woodley Place, Washington, D. C.

MEXICO . . . . . FRANCISCO CASTILLO NÁJERA
2829 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C.

NICARAGUA . . . . . LEÓN DE BAYLE
1521 New Hampshire Avenue, Washington, D. C.

PANAMA . . . . . ERNESTO JAÉN GUARDIA
1536 Eighteenth Street, Washington, D. C.

PARAGUAY . . . . . JUAN JOSÉ SOLER
Wardman Park Hotel, Washington, D. C.

PERU . . . . . M. DE FREYRE Y SANTANDER
1300 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C.

UNITED STATES . . . . . CORDELL HULL
Department of State, Washington, D. C.

URUGUAY . . . . . JUAN CARLOS BLANCO
1010 Vermont Avenue, Washington, D. C.

VENEZUELA . . . . . DIÓGENES ESCALANTE
2445 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General* PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now nearly 52 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

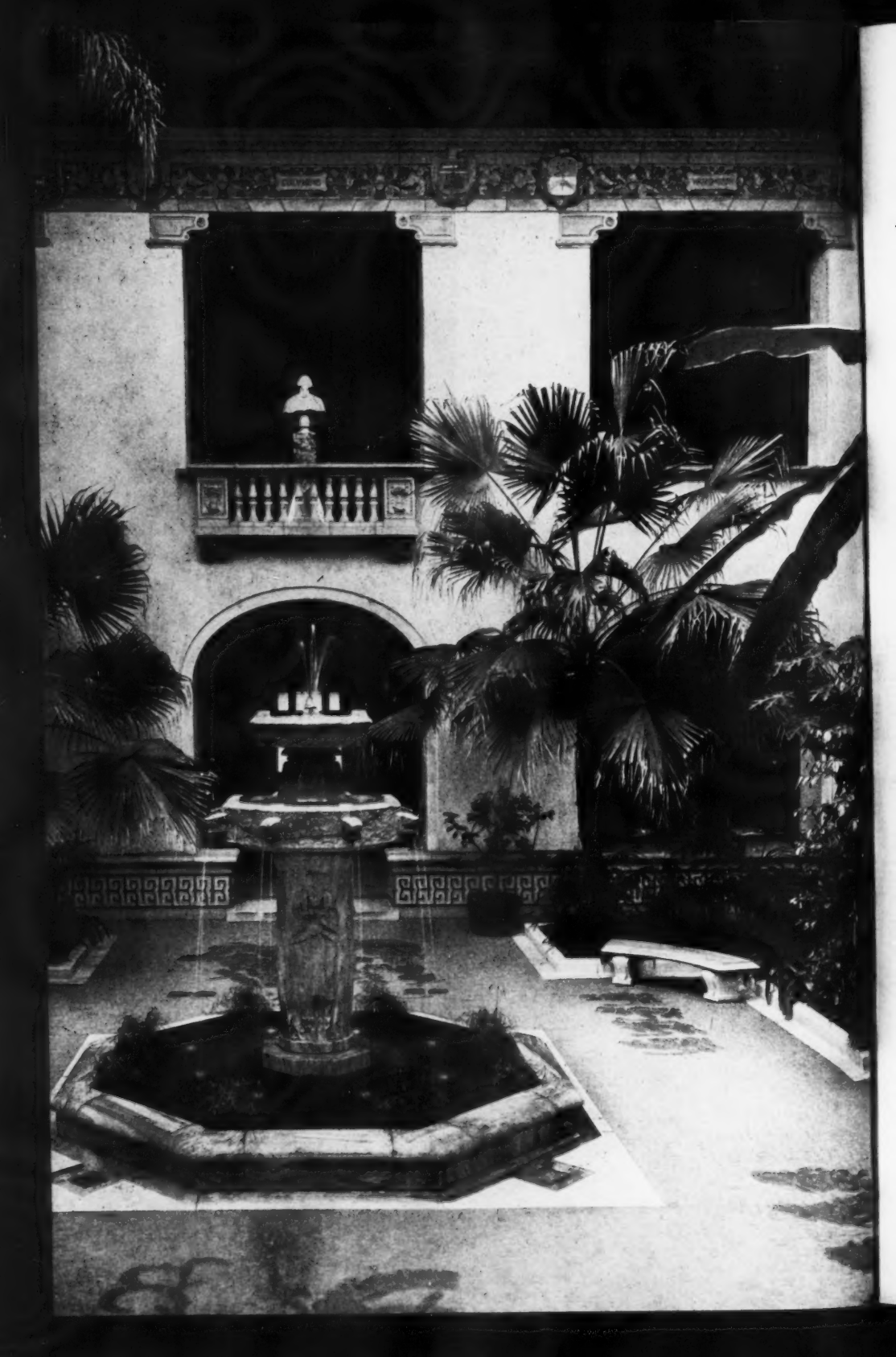
The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are available to officials and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 110,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



Contents - December 1941

	Page
AYACUCHO (Print by José Sabogal, reproduced from "Boletín Latinoamericano de Música," Tomo II)	Cover
MORE HIGHWAYS FOR THE AMERICAS—THE FOURTH PAN AMERICAN HIGHWAY CONGRESS *E. W. James*	677
SCULPTURES BY MARIA MARTINS *C. Powell Minnigerode*	682
"MALAZARTE," A NEW BRAZILIAN OPERA BY LORENZO FERNANDEZ *Luiz Heitor Corrêa de Azevedo*	686
JESÚS MARÍA TRONCOSO, NEW MINISTER OF THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC IN WASHINGTON	690
TRADE AGREEMENT BETWEEN ARGENTINA AND THE UNITED STATES	691
THE DEMOCRATIC CONCEPT OF BOLÍVAR, OR THE NEGATION OF DICTATORSHIP *Pedro de Alba*	695
PRE-COLUMBIAN ART IN PERU AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE FOR THE AMERICAS *Constantino Malinovsky*	700
BRAZILIAN MINERAL RESOURCES	705
THE INTER-AMERICAN SUMMER UNIVERSITY AT SAN JOSÉ, COSTA RICA *Fletcher Ryan Wickham*	721
PORTUGUESE PAGE: LOAS DE NATAL E REIS	724
SPANISH PAGE: VILLANCICO	725
PAN AMERICAN NEWS:	
Message of the President of Mexico	726
Inter-American Week at Troy, New York	731
Cuban Child Study Laboratory	732
Cuban Institute of Health	733
Governor Olson Entertains Latin American Consular Corps at the California State Fair (Photograph)	733
Child welfare institutions in Ecuador	734
Committee on Inter-American Cooperation in the Dominican Republic	736
Erratum	736

(The contents of previous issues of the BULLETIN *of the Pan American Union can be found in the "Readers' Guide" in your library)*

ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: PATIO, PAN AMERICAN UNION

Courtesy of the National Railways of Mexico

THE PALACE OF FINE ARTS, MEXICO CITY

The sessions of the Fourth Pan American Highway Congress were held in this handsome building.

BULLETIN OF THE
PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXV, No. 12 DECEMBER 1941

More Highways for the Americas

The Fourth Pan American Highway Congress

E. W. JAMES
Chief, Inter-American Regional Office, Public Roads Administration, Federal Works Agency

WITH every American Republic represented at the Fourth Pan American Highway Congress which convened in Mexico City on September 15, 1941, the stage may be considered set for great progress in road-building throughout the Americas in the immediate future. North America has long been thoroughly road-minded; South and Central America have now become so. The total official registration in the Highway Congress was 148; 63 delegates came from countries other than Mexico.

The successful achievement of the Fourth Congress continued the promise of the preceding meeting in Santiago, Chile, in January 1939, and the outstanding character of the Mexican conference was the obvious continuity of interest and action. Projects started at Santiago had been carried forward to significant results by the time the delegates convened at Mexico and action taken there represented still further progress.

The Argentine Committee appointed at Santiago to consider and report on a plan for a permanent secretariat or central committee to make the Pan American Highway Congresses a permanent entity placed its report before the appropriate Section of the Congress. The proposal for a technical committee to be created under the Pan American Highway Convention signed at Buenos Aires in December 1936 had been anticipated during the interval between Santiago and Mexico and meetings had been held by technical representatives in South America to inaugurate the work of such a group. This technical committee will ultimately represent all the republics and be responsible for formulating standards of

Photograph by R. E. Harper

THE ZÓCALO, OR MAIN SQUARE, MEXICO CITY

This square has been the heart of the city since before the Spanish conquest in 1521.

construction and for adapting them to meet the different needs and varying topographies of the several countries. This Committee will also be responsible for the final selection of common frontier points in the Pan American Highway system, several of which have not yet been established. The proposed Portuguese-Spanish-English glossary of technical terms received recognition by a resolution to create an official group, through the Pan American Union as an organizing agency, to act as a permanent institute to consider and issue a glossary acceptable for general use throughout the western hemisphere. Such a glossary has been needed not only by industrial interests in the United States but also by engineers in all the American Republics.

Technical interest in the Congress was evinced by the long list of papers submitted. There were 121 papers and memorials filed of which 78 were of a character to be referred to the Technical Section. Forty-one papers were submitted by Mexico; 46 by Argentina and 22 by the delegates from the United States. These covered a wide range of subjects of which soil stabilization, low-cost road construction and concrete pavements received predominant attention. It is a significant fact that among the papers were many of a descriptive nature reporting important highway and bridge projects completed recently in one or another of the Republics. These reports covered topics ranging over the whole field of highway activities. Among those especially interesting were

the papers describing the layout of the Federal road net in Mexico and the methods adopted to perfect it, the construction of earthquake-proof bridges in Chile, concrete pavement construction as practices in Mexico and Argentina, the use of Telford in Peru for base construction, the development of field and office manuals in several countries and the construction for safety of modern type intersections in several countries. There is ample evidence in the papers presented that engineers in most of the republics are keeping thoroughly informed of the advances made in the science and art of highway building.

The organization of the Congress followed conventional lines, the program being divided to provide for meetings by four sections: 1, Technical; 2, Financial and Administrative; 3, Operation and Safety; and 4, International.

1. Technical Section:

President	E. W. James, United States
Vice-President	Oscar Tenham, Chile
Secretary	Teunis Stolk, Venezuela
Announcers	José Mariano Pontón, Mexico Alberto Dovalí Jaime, Mexico Mauricio Urdaneta, Mexico

2. Financial and Administrative Section:

President	Rodolfo Soriano, Bolivia
Vice-President	Juvenal Monge, Peru
Secretary	Ernesto Jaén Guardia, Panama
Announcer	José Carlos Ornelas, Mexico

3. Operating and Safety Section:

President	Antonio Flores Vega, Nicaragua
Vice-President	Julio Fajardo, Colombia
Secretary	Rafael García Bango, Cuba.
Announcer	J. Francisco Rodríguez Cabo, Mexico

4. International Section:

President	Emilio López Frugoni, Argentina
Vice-President	Van Ness Philip, United States
Secretary	Luis Felipe Donoso, Ecuador
Announcer	Sergio Cuéllar, Mexico

Since the Second Inter-American Travel Congress was meeting simultaneously with the Highway Conference, there was provided a Mixed Coordinating Committee to study matters common to the two bodies. The officers of this committee were the following:

Chairman	Carlos P. Anesi, Argentina
Vice-Presidents	Hugo V. de Pena, Minister of Uruguay to Mexico Rodolfo Soriano, Bolivia Teunis Stolk, Venezuela
Technical Adviser	Stephen James, United States
Secretary	Tomás Eduardo Rodríguez, Chile
Announcer	Juan B. Amezcua, Mexico

The organization of the Congress was made at a special session held by the chairmen of all delegations, with the result that at the first plenary session all preliminary matters had been effectively disposed of. The efficient officers elected were as follows:

President	Vicente Cortés Herrera, Assistant Secretary of Communications and Public Works, Mexico
Vice-Presidents	The chairmen of the national delegations, the order of precedence chosen by lot
Secretary General	Armando Santacruz, Jr., Mexico
Assistant Secretaries	Arturo Zúñiga Latorre, Chile Federico Capurro, Uruguay León Cuéllar, El Salvador J. S. Williamson, United States

Most of the delegations arrived in Mexico City on September 14 or 15 in time to attend the official celebration of the Cry of Independence at the National Palace, where the members of the Congress met and were welcomed by His Excellency the President of Mexico. On the following day, the 16th, the parade and ceremonies incident to the occasion furnished an impressive example of a Mexican national celebration.

The Mexican Government through the

Secretariat of the Congress provided intervals of relaxation in the form of trips to attractive parts of Mexico City and to Toluca and other places of interest in the valley of Mexico, plane flights to the south along the line of the Pan American Highway, a luncheon at Xochimilco, and two pageants at the national stadium. The first of these, on the 17th, was a parade of flags in the form of mass dancing and calisthenics so popular in Mexico, and the other, on the 21st, an historical pageant depicting the Messenger of the Sun, set in a huge replica of the ceremonial plaza at Teotihuacán that had been erected in the amphitheater of the stadium. The final social event was an official reception at the Palace of Foreign Relations on September 24.

The presence at the Highway Congress of a United States Senator and three members of the United States Congress among the United States delegation was the occasion of several special events of marked courtesy on the part of the Mexican Government. There was a special session of the Senate to greet the visiting legislators and other opportunities were arranged for contacts between the respective officials of Mexico and the United States.

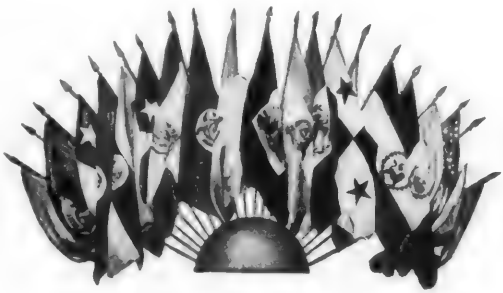
At the stadium, in the suburbs of the city, a highway show was held simultaneously with the Congress. Although there had been some misgivings as to the success of such a show at this time, the event justified itself beyond all expectations. It was probably the largest of the kind ever held in Mexico City. It was estimated that not less than sixty carloads of machinery were exhibited, much of it heavy specialized equipment. Most significantly every piece exhibited was sold from the floor. The Mexico City stadium is well adapted to commercial and industrial shows. Below the seating structure a concrete floor has been laid, providing a large area for indoor displays and in the grounds adjacent to the stadium there is ample room for outdoor displays where equipment can be operated and demonstrated to excellent advantage.

The official findings of the Congress were embodied in a series of 39 resolutions. In sharp contrast with, for instance, the Rio de Janeiro Congress in 1929, which adopted a large number of resolutions dealing with detailed technical questions, the resolutions of the last Congress include a great many having distinctly international significance. Among these subjects for international consideration and treatment may be cited resolutions on uniform traffic rules and regulations, including parking; uniformity of licensing requirements and of accident statistics; uniform rules for vehicle inspection; a common financial plan for constructing the Pan American Highway system; the creation of an international institute to prepare a Spanish-Portuguese-English glossary of technical terms related to highway and bridge engineering, construction, equipment and materials; the construction of international bridges; the standardization of highway statistics and of highway classifications; the standardization of road signs and markers; the adoption of an international convention on the circulation of motor vehicles and their passage at common frontiers; the organization of the Technical Commission provided for by the Pan American Highway Convention (Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, Buenos Aires 1936); the formal inauguration of the Pan American Highway System on October 12, 1942, which will be the 450th anniversary of the discovery of America; the extension by ferry of the highway system to Cuba and to other insular republics; a resolution to protect the supply of motor fuel through-

out the non-oil-producing countries; and the establishment of an Inter-American Federation of Automobile Clubs.

The place for the next Congress was fixed by unanimous agreement as Lima, Peru.

The highest praise should be given to the Mexican organization which arranged for the Congress and carried it through smoothly and without loss of time, kept pace with the demands of the sections and had ready at the close of the Congress a full résumé of the proceedings and resolutions. The officers of the Congress have already been named. The Secretariat that accomplished the preliminary task so well was composed of the following Mexican officials, all engineers: Vicente Cortés Herrera, Secretary General, and five Assistant Secretaries: Leonel R. Pacheco, Carlos Bazán, Manuel García M., José Rivera R., and Armando Santacruz, Jr.



Sculptures by Maria Martins

C. POWELL MINNIGERODE
Director, The Corcoran Gallery of Art

THE Corcoran Gallery of Art, in Washington, was the scene of a brilliant opening on the afternoon of October 14 when an exhibition of sculpture by Maria Martins, wife of the Brazilian Ambassador to the United States of North America, was placed on view. Attended by representatives from the American Republics, other diplomats, and many officials of the United States Government, as well as artists, critics, and connoisseurs, the exhibition received favorable and enthusiastic comment on every side.

The sculptures, executed in bronze, terra cotta, plaster, and various native Brazilian woods, were handsomely displayed in one of the large second floor galleries of the museum against a background of palms, ferns, and tropical vegetation. The artist greeted the many invited guests and talked with them throughout the afternoon regarding her work. Immediately following the opening at the Gallery, Madame Martins entertained at a delightful reception and tea at the Embassy for artists, critics, and special guests. Most of those present knew her as a charming official hostess, but few had realized that she is a serious sculptress of great ability as well. Her seemingly boundless energy apparently makes it possible for Madame Martins to carry on two lives—that of chatelaine of the Embassy of an important power with its many calls upon her time, and that of an active creative artist whose twenty exhibits in the current showing are the fruit of many months of work.

Born in Minas Gerais, Brazil, and educated in a French school in Rio de Janeiro, she studied music in her own country and in France, with the intention of becoming a pianist, and later was a student of drawing and painting at the Académies des Beaux Arts in Rio and Paris. Madame

Courtesy of the Corcoran Gallery of Art

SALOME (*BRONZE*)

Martins studied sculpture under Catherine Barjanski and also with Jespers, well known in Brussels and Paris. She lived for a time in the Orient, which stimulated her interest in various forms of Chinese and Japanese art, though it cannot be said that any appreciable influence of the Orient is found in her work.

Visitors to the exhibition were amazed at the variety and breadth of the sculptress' efforts. Upon entering the room one found a charming little portrait head in bronze of the artist's daughter, Nora, sensitively modelled and full of the charm of childhood. At the far end of the gallery, one was amazed to see, in contrast, the creative power in her great standing figure of Christ, carved in jacarandá, a native Brazilian wood. This figure is full of strength and power, and the simplicity and vigor of its carving caused many to comment that this striking piece is Maria Martins' most notable work. The inscription on the base of the figure, ¡"*Vae vobis, scribae et Pharisaei, hypocritae!*" ("Woe to you, scribes and Pharisees, hypocrites!") is indicative of the spirit of this militant figure. The grain of the wood has been used to excellent advantage to enhance the effect. This stunning carving occupies one end of the room by itself and seems to dominate the whole exhibition.

The artist's interest in the dance is revealed in a number of her sculptures, a native dance of Brazil, the *samba*, being the subject of several pieces. One of these, carved in mahogany, depicts a young man and young woman, he with a stringed musical instrument, and in the interesting rhythms of this piece one feels a moving expression of the dance. The famous dancer of Biblical times, Salome, so popular with artists of all ages, is the subject of several studies, one a standing bronze in which the dancer holds at arm's length the head of St. John, which she examines

Courtesy of the Corcoran Gallery of Art

CHRIST (JACARANDÁ)

Courtesy of the Corcoran Gallery of Art

SAMBA (*MAHOGANY*)

Courtesy of the Corcoran Gallery of Art

NOSTALGIA (*BRONZE*)

with calm detachment; one a small seated terra cotta with a soft pink patina; and one a large life-size seated figure in tinted plaster which occupies the center of the room and which was completed only a day or two before the exhibition opened.

Another phase of the dance is revealed in the large standing figure in bronze of a young woman, full of life and movement, which the artist calls *Nostalgia*. The green patina of this work is particularly pleasing. The dancer's hair is decorated with grapes and leaves, the drapery around her waist is gracefully held, and her lithe body has action and poise.

In *Yara* (*Watersprite*) a female figure rises as from a fountain, the base being decorated with fish and other sea forms. A

rich background of palms and ferns showed this arresting work to particular advantage.

Still another phrase of the artist's varied expression was found in *Refugee*, a small wood carving of a seated woman, full of simple dignity and the quiet resignation of one who has faced privation and hardship. In striking contrast was a gay and amusing work depicting the vivacious dancer, Carmen Miranda, carved in wood, gilded and colored. This unusual piece has been purchased by a New York collector. Another work in lighter vein was a charming little figure in red terra cotta of a standing young girl entitled *Adolescence*.

The wide range of Madame Martins' sculpture was strikingly revealed in this showing, and her competent handling of varied subject matter and her accomplished use of many sculptural mediums mark her as an artist of unusual creative talent and ability. The Corcoran Gallery was honored to present to the public the interesting work of this able artist who, through happy circumstance, is now resident in Washington.

Maria Martins has been selected as one of the artists to represent Brazil in the important exhibition of Pan American sculpture being assembled by the International Business Machines Corporation to be shown in various museums throughout the United States after opening at the Corcoran Gallery next May. One of her wood carvings in the current showing entitled *Samba* has been chosen to represent Madame Martins in the coming exhibition, because it not only is representative of her work but gives an interesting interpretation of one of Brazil's native dances.

Courtesy of the Corcoran Gallery of Art

NORA (*BRONZE*)

"Malazarte"

A New Brazilian Opera by Lorenzo Fernandez

LUIZ HEITOR CORRÊA DE AZEVEDO

Professor of Folk Music, National School of Music, University of Brazil; Editor, "Revista Brasileira de Musica;" Consultant, Music Division, Pan American Union

On September 30, 1941, the curtain of the municipal theater in Rio de Janeiro rose on a new Brazilian opera, *Malazarte*, with a libretto based on the text of a well known play by Graça Aranha and music by Oscar Lorenzo Fernandez. The cast was headed by the United States tenor, Frederick Jagel, who sang the title role: the composer in person directed the first performance of his work. It was an unqualified success. The composer was enthusiastically cheered as he took innumerable curtain calls; he was later fêted in various ways by his admirers.

Malazarte is not a wholly new work. It had its genesis ten years ago when the young composer met at one of his concerts the noted thinker and author of *Estética da Vida* and *Chanaan*. Lorenzo Fernandez' star was already rising in the Brazilian artistic firmament, thanks to his first great symphonies, *Suite sobre temas populares* (1925), *Imbapara* (1929), and *Reisado do pastoreio* (1930). Graça Aranha had long been recognized as the leader of the modernists in Brazil and the presiding genius of a literary and musical group including Villa-Lobos, Ronald de Carvalho and many others. It was Graça Aranha himself who, charmed by the musicianship of Lorenzo Fernandez, thought him peculiarly fitted to interpret the inner meaning of his drama *Malazarte*, subtly symbolical but distinctly Brazilian. He therefore requested the composer to collaborate in this literary-musical masterpiece that has just been given to the public of Rio de Janeiro. For a year the author and composer spent much time together, working out plans for their collaboration. The libretto of the opera was the last work undertaken by Graça Aranha before his untimely death early in 1931. He had been unable to finish it, and Lorenzo Fernandez found himself alone with the incomplete literary framework of the opera, for which he had partially the musical material. "The death of this friend was a tremendous shock to me," said the composer in an interview recently published in a Brazilian paper. "I underwent a period of real discouragement; for a time I was unable to proceed with the opera." Later, however, he returned to it, and because Lorenzo Fernandez is also a poet, who has written the words for many of his own songs, he adapted the remaining scenes of the original *Malazarte* to the libretto for the opera.

The plot centers around the legendary Mediterranean character of *Pedro de las malas artes* (Rascally Peter), who has been transmuted by Brazilian tradition into the rogue Pedro Malazarte, a man of many vices but the utmost fascination.

Scene 1 of the first act takes place in the garden of an old colonial house, the home of Eduardo, an impulsive and generous lad who is deeply in love with his fiancée Almira. Malazarte, somewhat intoxicated, is recounting his exploits to Edward's mother and the old nurse; the poor souls

are terrified at his deviltries. He makes advances to Filomena, a madcap who is engaged to Raimundo, the son of the nurse and a servant in the house. The scene ends with Malazarte playing on his guitar an irresistible *batuque* that sets everyone to dancing and makes a superb symphonic close.

The second scene takes place on Christmas eve. We see the processions of shepherdesses winding through the streets of the old colonial city, in accordance with custom, the maidens bearing flowers for the new-born Christ-child. Malazarte appears in the procession arm in arm with Filomena who, frightened, slips away from him when she espies Raimundo. The two men plan a fishing expedition for that night over the protests of Filomena, who recalls the tradition that whoever fishes on that sacred night will be drowned. Raimundo laughs at the legend but is drowned on the fatal expedition. Then Eduardo and Almira enter; she is the prettiest shepherdess in the radiant group seen as the curtain went up. They begin to talk of the old legends that Eduardo's nurse used to tell him when he he was a boy. Almira shows jealousy of the *Mae d'Agua* (Watersprite) who lives in the bottom of the well and whom Eduardo claims to have seen many times at that very hour when seated on the well-curb. As night deepens Almira peers down into the bottom of the well and then, as though drawn by a magnet, she throws herself in as a greenish radiance rises and the watersprite appears, gleaming and smiling.

The first scene of the second act shows an inconsolable Eduardo in the large and gloomy drawing room of his home. His old nurse Militina, crazed by the death of Raimundo, enters pursued by a noisy crowd shouting "Old Mother Moon! Old Mother Moon!" A protector suddenly appears and dominates the multitude with strange authority. It is the watersprite, who has taken the guise of Dionisia,

Courtesy of Luis Heitor Corrêa de Azevedo

THE GARDEN OF EDUARDO'S HOME

Setting for Act I, Scene 1, of *Malazarte*. All settings were designed by Jayme Silva.

Courtesy of Luiz Heitor Corrêa de Azevedo

A STREET IN COLONIAL RIO DE JANEIRO

Setting for Act I, Scene 2, of *Malazarte*.

a fisherwoman. Dionisia approaches Eduardo, and speaking to him of sweet and mysterious things, enchants him. The two disappear from the stage, which gradually darkens while a symphonic interlude introduces the second scene. This takes place on a moonlit shore. The whole scene is a love duet between Eduardo and Dionisia, with interpolations from behind the scenes by a chorus of Iaras, the Undines of Brazilian tradition.

The third and last act shows Boa Viagem beach on the other side of Guanabara Bay and the familiar landscape of Rio de Janeiro, with Sugarloaf, Gavea and Corcovado in the background. It is night, and the twinkling lights outline the old colonial city. The curtain rises upon Dionisia lying asleep on a rock. The songs of fishermen are heard as they leave for the sea before sunrise. The Iaras dance in the moonlight, but are dispersed by the first rays of light. Malazarte enters in a boat and woos Dionisia, who at last succumbs to the charms of this incorrigible Don Juan. As they set out together for the mysterious palaces of Dionisia, which seem to rise on the horizon in clouds encarmined by the sun, Eduardo enters. Overcome with surprise and overwhelmed by despair, he tries to prevent the departure of his beloved. But Malazarte's boat sets sail for the open sea, to the accompaniment of the song *I shall be the eternal voice of love*. Eduardo, fascinated by the mysterious watersprite, walks down toward the water while the Iaras sing with voluptuous and ironic mirth, continuing their work of deceit and destruction.

These three acts of a primitive poem deep-rooted in Brazilian tradition gave Lorenzo Fernandez an opportunity to emphasize, with that incomparable power of suggestion which music has, the folk and dramatic meaning of this drama.

They are to be found, for example, in the infectious ***batuque*** played by Malazarte at the end of the first scene; in the shepherdesses' choruses, sung in a winding procession punctuated with multi-colored lights; and in the authentic *linha d'agua* (a magic incantation) of a *catimbó* from northeastern Brazil, which serves as the theme for the chorus of Iaras in the last act. The two scenes of the first act, because of their picturesqueness and highly decorative quality, are those that are richest in folklore. In the three following scenes the action is gradually transferred to a plane of unreality, mysterious and full of fantasy; that is the field which Lorenzo Fernandez finds most fertile for his creative imagination at the present stage of his artistic development. The critics in Rio de Janeiro are unanimous in maintaining that these are the best and strongest moments of the opera, which ends in a crescendo whose climax is the magnificent finale.

Courtesy of Luiz Heitor Corrêa de Azevedo

A BEACH ON GUANABARA BAY

Setting for Act III, Scene 1, of *Malazarte*.

Jesús María Troncoso

New Minister of the Dominican Republic in Washington

WHEN, early in August 1941, Señor Andrés Pastoriza, who had served as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the Dominican Republic at Washington since December 1935, was recalled to Ciudad Trujillo to fill the post of Secretary of State for Communications and Public Works, the Dominican Government named Dr. Jesús María Troncoso as his successor at Washington. Dr. Troncoso presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt at the White House on September 23, 1941, and on that occasion expressed in the following terms the sentiments of the Dominican Government and people in regard to their relations with the United States:

I could have no greater satisfaction than that which I feel in appearing before Your Excellency, for I am fully persuaded that I faithfully interpret the sentiments of the Dominican people and Government in affirming that that people and that Government in this, humanity's hour of crisis, are deeply inspired by the ideals governing the life of this great nation which, because of its exceptional virtues, has won a place in the front rank of civilized nations. At its head the figure of Your Excellency stands out as a symbol of the spirit that it incarnates.

I am especially charged by my Government to state to Your Excellency that the Dominican Republic feels indissolubly bound to the principles of preservation, liberty, and mutual assistance under the aegis of law, which constitute the bond of solidarity among all the American republics and give impetus to their efforts in the preparation of continental defense; for it is thus that the conquests, spiritual as well as material, that man has so far achieved will be preserved and the future of humanity assured, to be guided toward a better world of understanding and fraternity. The Dominican nation is profoundly convinced that free America is the land chosen by God for the germination of a new generation whose aspirations will be more in harmony with divine plans.

President Roosevelt replied to Dr. Troncoso's remarks in part as follows:

I highly appreciate the sentiments which you so generously express. I am also gratified by the message which you bring that the Dominican people and Government share the ideals of the people and Government of the United States of America, as well as their faith in the principle of hemispheric solidarity in the defense of the Americas and of our continental heritage of liberty.

You may be assured, Mr. Minister, that it will be a pleasure for me personally and for all the officials concerned in this Government to continue with you the close and effective collaboration in matters of mutual interest to our Governments

which has happily characterized our relations with your predecessor.

The new diplomatic representative of the Dominican Republic, who is the son of the President of that nation, was born in Ciudad Trujillo on May 18, 1902. He was educated in his native country, receiving a degree in philosophy and letters from the Normal School of Santo Domingo and later a degree in law from the University of Santo Domingo. Among the various public posts that he has occupied have been the following: Secretary of the Land Claims Office; Secretary of the Dominican Legation in Santiago, Chile; Assistant Secretary to the President in 1939; member of the Consultative Committee of the Department of State; Under-Secretary of State; and professor at the University of Santo Domingo.

Dr. Troncoso has also taken his place as representative of the Dominican Republic on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.

Trade Agreement between Argentina and the United States

A RECIPROCAL trade agreement between Argentina and the United States, designed to improve trade relations between the two countries both during the present emergency and after the war, was signed by representatives of the two Governments at Buenos Aires on October 14, 1941. The agreement went into effect provisionally on November 15, 1941, and will enter into full and definitive force thirty days after exchange of the instrument of ratification of the Argentine Government and the proclamation of the agreement by the President of the United States. Subject to certain special provisions, it will remain in force until November 15, 1944, and may be continued in effect indefinitely thereafter.

The reciprocal concessions granted in the agreement cover a large portion of the trade between the two countries and include reductions by each country of its tariffs on specified products of the other country, the binding of certain tariff rates against increases, and the freezing of specified commodities on the free list.

United States agricultural and industrial exports will receive benefits covering 127 Argentine tariff items, on 39 of which the duties were reduced and on 88 of which the present rates are bound against increases during the life of the agreement. Although the total number of tariff items listed is 127, many of them cover groups of products, and therefore the number of individual products benefited is in reality much greater. These benefits are also subject to a special provision stipulating that a specified proportion of the full tariff reductions granted by Argentina to the United States shall not become effective until Argentine customs revenue from imports again equals at least 270,000,000 paper pesos in a calendar year. This sum is

approximately the annual average customs revenue of Argentina in the decade 1931–40, and is about 40,000,000 pesos more than receipts from customs in 1940.

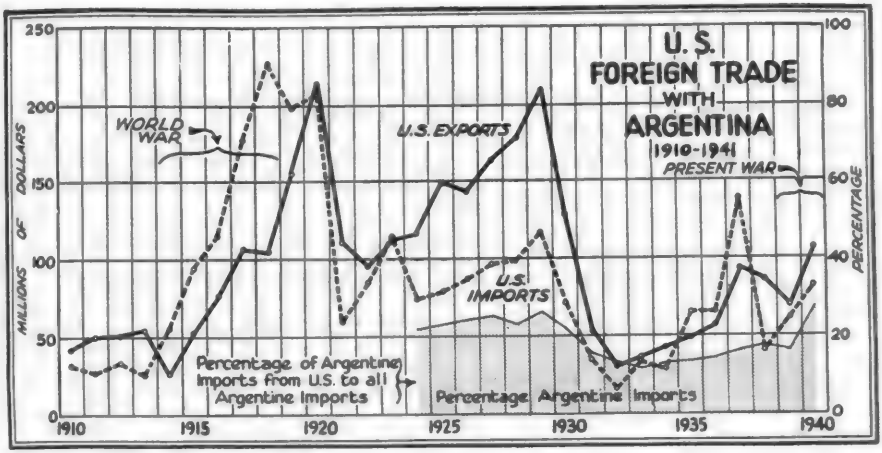
Products benefiting from duty reductions are: Prunes; salmon and mackerel: apples; pears; grapes; raisins; canned sardines; specified passenger automobiles, trucks, buses and parts; asbestos brake linings; rubber hose; white cement; automatic refrigerator parts and accessories; unplaned oak, spruce, Douglas fir, and pitch or tea pine lumber; specified general machines and spare parts; certain radio sets and ordinary tubes; vulcanized fiber; portable electric tools; storage battery cases; wallboard; liner board; turpentine and rosin; and unexposed motion picture film.

Items bound against tariff increases are: Dried fruit; chewing gum; walnuts; cigarettes and tobacco; other specified types of passenger cars and parts; several kinds of agricultural implements and machinery (plows, tractors, sowers, harvesters, threshing machines, etc.); pumps; casks; automatic refrigerators and mechanisms; compressors; boiler scale removers; asphalt and asbestos roofing felt; razor blades; fixed wrenches; unplaned white pine lumber; spruce and Douglas fir plywood; specified small industrial machines and parts; office machines (typewriters and parts, cash registers, dictaphones, adding, calculating, and accounting machines); oil burners; windmills; refractory earth in blocks; specified radio sets, parts, and tubes; wind-driven electric power generating devices; fluorescent bulbs and fittings; small electric motors; copying, blotting, and sanitary paper; fountain pens; sulphur; varnishes and enamels; exposed motion picture film; and photographic dry plates.

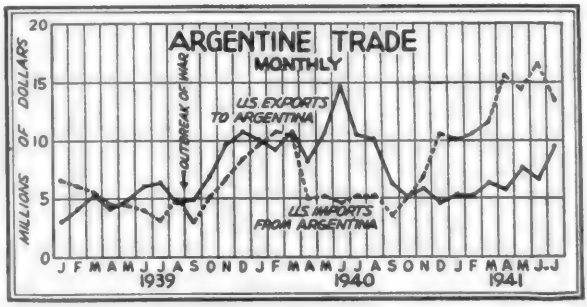
The products included under these specific tariff items accounted for $32,106,000 worth, or 30.2 percent, of total United States exports to Argentina in 1940. Of this amount $19,354,000 represents products that will benefit from duty reductions and $12,752,000 products on which duties have been bound.

Argentina in return is granted reductions in duties or assurances of the continuance of existing duties on a list of 84 United States tariff items. These cover products which in 1938 and 1939 accounted for about 93 percent of total United States imports from Argentina, and in 1940 accounted for about 75 percent of such imports. The decreased proportion in 1940 was due largely to the fact that in that year fine grade wool, on which no concession is made in the agreement, constituted a greater percentage of total United States purchases from Argentina. The principal Argentine commodities—principal, that is, from the trade value standpoint—upon which United States duties are reduced include flaxseed, canned corned beef, casein, cattle hides, coarse wools, and quebracho extract. Still others are oleo oil and stearin, tallow, meat extracts, neatsfoot oil and stock, onyx, willow or osier for basketmakers, certain furs and skins, specified prepared foods, jams, jellies, broom corn, canary seed, and certain manufactures of reptile leather. The duties on asparagus, grapes, plums, prunes, and prunelles are reduced during seasons when domestic marketings of these products are light. Existing duties are bound on glycerin, processed maté, unmanufactured, ground, or pulverized mica, fresh pears, and alfalfa seed, while commodities bound on the free list include carpet wools, crude maté, several kinds of animal by-products, quebracho wood, and specified furs and skins.

A special separate schedule of concessions granted to Argentina by the United States applies to commodities which the United States ordinarily obtains chiefly from coun-



Copyright by Business Section, New York Times



tries other than Argentina but which, because of the European war, are not now available as sources of supply in normal quantities. These concessions may be withdrawn by the United States on six months' written notice at any time following the cessation of hostilities between the United Kingdom and Germany. Commodities on which present tariffs are reduced under this provision include medicinal preparations of animal origin, beryllium oxide or carbonate, sunflower oil, Italian-type cheeses, anchovies, macaroni and similar alimentary pastes, prepared tomatoes, and specified kinds of dressed furs and skins. Duties are bound at present rates on brandy, liqueurs, kirschwasser, ratafia, bitters, champagne and other sparkling wines, certain types of still wines, vermouth, and dressed furs and fur skins of lamb and sheep (except caracul and Persian lamb); while the products bound on the free list are argols, tartar, and wine lees, crude or partly refined, containing less than 90 percent of potassium bitartrate, and calcium tartrate.

Prominent among the general provisions of the agreement is the assurance against discriminatory tariff or quota treatment; in other words, assurance of unconditional most-favored-nation treatment, by which any tariff concession on any product

accorded by either country to a third country will be extended immediately and without compensation to the other party to the agreement. The only exceptions to this provision are the special trade advantages accorded by the United States to Cuba, and, as set forth in an exchange of notes accompanying the agreement, certain special tariff advantages granted by Argentina to contiguous countries.

The agreement furthermore extends the principle of nondiscriminatory most-favored-nation treatment generally to the other country in case the government of either one establishes or maintains any form of international exchange control.

One of the notes forming an integral part of the agreement refers to Argentina's present inability to convert its sterling balances into free currencies. Recently the Argentine trade and payments position has been aggravated to a very important extent by the trade and financial controls adopted by the belligerents in the present European war, notably the United Kingdom, which is one of the principal markets for Argentine exports; and as a result of those measures Argentina has been unable to convert freely into dollars the proceeds of its sales to the so-called "sterling area." Assurance is given in the exchange of notes on this point that the Government of the United States will not invoke the most-favored-nation provisions of the agreement in respect to Argentine exchange or quota treatment of imports from the United Kingdom as long as proceeds of Argentine exports to that country are blocked. Argentina, on the other hand, gives assurance that exchange will be allotted, at least in limited amounts in accordance with its exchange availabilities, for every one of the United States imports listed in the agreement. A similar exception as to exchange and quota preferences granted to the contiguous countries and Peru is also provided in one of the notes exchanged.

Still another feature of the agreement, and one that has not previously been included in agreements negotiated under authority of the Trade Agreements Act, is the provision for consultation regarding all matters affecting the operation of the agreement through the medium of a mixed commission consisting of representatives of each of the two Governments.

This trade agreement between Argentina and the United States is the twelfth that the United States has concluded with American republics, and it is generally hailed in both countries as a significant forward step in carrying out the broad program of cooperation between the democracies of the Western Hemisphere.

The Democratic Concept of Bolívar, or the Negation of Dictatorship

PEDRO DE ALBA
Assistant Director of the Pan American Union

In the strong and complex personality of Bolívar the elements of several human types were united. The statesman, the soldier, the reformer alternated with the man of letters, the sociologist, the legislator.

Bolívar's philosophy embraced all the social doctrines and political ideas that have been expounded throughout the American continent during its century and a half of independence. In addition to the legacy contained in congressional messages, speeches to the army, proclamations, manifestoes, and constitutional platforms, he bequeathed to posterity the treasure of his personal correspondence, which abounds in revealing illustrations of his discernment and vision, his nobility of spirit and his knowledge of men.

The Liberator's intelligence was wonderfully complex and inexhaustibly rich. Endowed with great sensitivity, he could perceive all the nuances of the human soul. While possessing a keen eye for reactions in his fellow men, he followed a system of self-criticism to analyze his own visible acts or hidden thoughts. It was he himself who in various public documents and in intimate letters to his friends laid bare his doubts and contradictions.

The growing magnetism that the figure of the Liberator exerts upon the present generation stems from that comprehension, that impulse to understand the heights and the depths of the spirit, that atmosphere of energy or of indulgence which radiated from his personality.

Bolívar personified the negation of dictatorship; he was the very antithesis of dictators, because he never regarded himself as infallible, because he was acutely aware that the people have a sure intuition. He was always ready to recognize errors, and to share responsibilities.

He had a passion for glory, but even greater was his love for liberty. Entrenched in the depths of his soul was a holy horror of anarchy and demagogy. He realized the dangers that threatened the young republics, and desired to sally forth to meet those perils with valiant determination. The viceroyalties, captaincies, and intendancies that for three centuries had lived under monarchical dominion and despotic compulsion offered a fertile field for all sorts of uprisings. When the bonds with the mother country were severed, a spirit of revenge against the former oppressors began to germinate. From the four cardinal points of the compass arose the winds of rebellion.

Bolívar fought to give liberty to the nations of the New World. He deeply desired the economic improvement of the working classes and the prerogatives of independence and dignity for all citizens without distinction of race, position, or origin; but at the same time he demanded that the new republics discipline themselves by work and base their life on a sound ethical system.

Bolívar was not only a soldier and statesman of genius; ideas for social reform and the economic betterment of the oppressed

DR. PEDRO DE ALBA, ASSISTANT DIRECTOR OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

Dr. de Alba stands before a replica of the equestrian statue of Bolívar presented by Venezuela to New York City and unveiled in Central Park on April 19, 1921.

also occupied his mind. He liberated the slaves and serfs, not only his own but others' as well. He held that the communal lands of the Indians should be respected, and ordered that Indians who had no such lands should be given them. He upheld the principles of a more equitable distribution of wealth as one premise of the new social order, and asked that the light of knowledge and education be made available to the emancipated nations.

In his address to the Congress of Angostura in 1819, after analyzing from all imaginable angles the political problems of the time, he turned his mind toward the future and declared that the foundation stone of the greatness of the New World nations ought to be the education of the masses. He declared:

> Popular education should be the first concern of Congress. Morality and knowledge are the two poles of a republic; they are our first necessities. Let us borrow from Athens her Areopagus and her guardians of customs and laws; let us borrow from Rome her censors and tribunes; and, making a holy alliance with these moral institutions, let us renew in the world the idea of a nation that is not content to be free and strong but wishes also to be virtuous.

Bolívar had a classic culture and men-

tality. Víctor Andrés Belaúnde, the Peruvian writer and fervent eulogist of the Liberator, has well said that he may be considered one of the outstanding geniuses of the Latin race. It would be appropriate to add that he was one of the greatest exponents of the Greco-Roman temperament; not the Greece of the tyrants or the Rome of the Caesars, but the early republics of Hellas and Latium. He spoke of archons and tribunes of the people, of censors and guardians of republican institutions, because he had the same honesty as the heroes of Greece who, after saving the republic, justified their acts before the Councils of the Elders. He also partook of the spirit of the Rome of the consuls when, in the midst of the triumphal entries of victorious generals, the voice of the people could be heard saying to the victors: "Remember that thou art mortal."

A classic sobriety and humanistic style pervaded all the documents issued by Bolívar as statesman, soldier, and legislator, and left their traces even in his private correspondence and personal notes. In a letter to General Francisco de Paula Santander, dated April 15, 1823, Bolívar said:

> I have admired from afar what you have done, but have not said anything because I believe there is nothing so corrosive as praise; it delights the palate but destroys the vitals. I might amount to something if I had been less praised. . . .

How impressive is this attitude of the Liberator when he invites us to reflect upon the dangers of flattery and adulation! He understood that indiscriminate praise could corrupt the founders of the young republics; he realized that in the wake of obsequious eulogy followed daring personal ambitions. He knew that adulation begets excessive pride, and that an incontinent appetite for power and command leads to the rise of dictatorships. When he asserted "I might amount to something if I had been less praised," he seemed to recognize that he himself had sometimes lost his head.

His delicate sensibilities led him into an analysis of the pros and cons of any enterprise he sought to undertake, and thus we see him oppressed by harrowing contradictions. His boundless passion for the discipline, greatness, and well-being of the nations to which he had given independence obliged him to explore all paths. His proposals for a strong and stable executive power, a hereditary senate, a president elected for life, and a restricted suffrage were motivated not by any desire to impair democracy, but rather by his eagerness to find formulas that would prevent disintegration and libertinism in the newly established republics. He recognized their evil inheritance from three centuries of Spanish domination, during which the privileges and arrogance of the conqueror engendered in the conquered a deep current of hidden rancor and poorly dissimulated resentment.

The number and magnitude of the problems bequeathed by the colonial period were destined to lead the nations of Hispanic America into the most contradictory acts and absurd experiments. Nevertheless, the bitterness of the Liberator's last years were invested with heroic grandeur. He could not accept defeat; his strong character rebelled against discouragement. He felt impelled to leave in writing his accusatory reflections, so that future generations might see from his personal example the import of the problems they should solve if they were to be faithful to his memory. The "supreme delicacy" that he recognized in Marshal Sucre was the heritage of his own temperament. He knew that sensitivity and delicacy were dangerous traits in time of war, and he achieved self-control in order to be able to wage his battle more effectively. The most amaz-

THE STATUE OF BOLÍVAR IN CARACAS, HIS BIRTHPLACE

ing thing is that the attributes of dreamer and intellectual, which at times make him seem a true poet, did not in the least weaken his character.

Conclusive testimony to the sobriety of the Liberator's character is found in the judgment of that noble gentleman, the great Captain of the Crossing of the Andes, José de San Martín, who stated:

> It may be said that Bolívar's military accomplishments earned for him the right to be called the most extraordinary man America has produced. What characterized him above all else and, to some extent, constituted his special genius, was a constancy that was proof against any trial. Although beset by difficulties, he never let himself be disheartened by them, no matter how great the dangers into which his ardent spirit led him.

The militancy of his character was emphasized by the epoch in which he seized the sword to liberate America. His energies were unflagging during the long years of struggle to bring order into the institutions of the new nations. Never did he use his energy, his character, his prestige, to satisfy concealed ambitions; always before him was the idea of service, of helping to achieve the glorious destinies of the New World. There were those who invited him to found a dynasty, to put on a crown. But he had no wish to emulate Iturbide's example, and rightfully so, for between those two diametrically opposed personalities there was a wide and deep abyss.

As early as 1815 Bolívar had expressed the opinion that a creole monarchy would

probably be established in Mexico when that nation had perfected its independence, and that was precisely what happened. Iturbide, a soldier of fortune, was enmeshed in a web of flattery, fell victim to his own lack of political sagacity, and eventually had to pay before a firing squad for his attempt to obstruct the course of Mexico's war for independence. Bolívar declined the offer of a crown as an offense against everything that he had previously lived for and accomplished. To him the title of Liberator was more precious than that of monarch.

On occasions fraught for him with anguish and drama, he felt obliged to assume dictatorial authority and to govern with full powers, in order to curb the fires of disorder, anarchy, and dissolution. He was always eager to turn over the power with which the congresses had invested him to governmental juntas or to councils of patriots. Power enveloped him at times like the deadly garment in the legend of Hercules. He wished to retire, to become simply one more citizen at the service of his country, but the whirlwind of events would not permit it. He was the leader of nations, consumed in the burning bush.

In Bolívar's brief address to the Congress of Colombia at Cúcuta, we find an admonition worthy of a Roman consul:

> This sword is of no use in time of peace, and this should be my last day of power. Thus have I sworn to myself and thus have I promised to Colombia, because there can be no republic where the people are not assured of the exercise of their own powers. A man like myself is a dangerous citizen in a popular government; he is an immediate threat to national sovereignty. I wish to be a citizen, so that I and all others may be free. I prefer the title of Citizen to that of Liberator, because while the latter originates in war, the former derives from law and order. Let me exchange all of my titles for that of Good Citizen.

Thus he spoke in 1821, before the campaigns for the independence of Ecuador and Peru, when his military saga still lacked the climactic events at Pichincha, Junín, and Ayacucho, and his works of political genius had not been crowned by the convening of the Continental Congress of Panama.

Some day the history of Simón Bolívar will be written as the tragedy of the man who could divest himself of neither military glory nor civil powers. He was claimed by all honors and held by a long chain of responsibilities. Nevertheless, as has just been said, in 1821, the year in which the independence of several American republics was finally consummated, he entertained the fond hope of becoming a simple citizen. A month before he expressed that desire to the Congress of Cúcuta, he had written a letter to Dr. Pedro Gual couched in similar language:

> History will say, Bolívar took command to liberate his fellow citizens, and when they were free he left them to be governed not by his will, but by law.

Those words link the democratic thought of Bolívar with that of José María Morelos, the reformer, hero, and martyr of Mexican independence, a man of continental stature, worthy of a place beside the Liberator.

Morelos, who at the closing session of the Congress of Chilpancingo asked for himself the title of Servant of the Nation, could well have signed the message of Cúcuta in which Bolívar asked only the title of Good Citizen. For his part the Liberator would have been satisfied to declare with Morelos that good law must be superior to any man. The letter of Simón Bolívar to Dr. Pedro Gual and the message of José María Morelos to the First Mexican Congress were written in the dramatic hour when democracy in Hispanic America was born.

Pre-Columbian Art in Peru and its Significance for the Americas

CONSTANTINO MALINOVSKY

In the field of art the American continents, north and south, have been slow to avail themselves of the rich inspiration to be found in pre-Columbian art. To the popular mind the history of the American continent began with Christopher Columbus; there have been many and practical reasons for this. The Spaniards and Portuguese in South America and the pioneers in North America were at first occupied with the immediate struggle for existence, for gold and fabled riches, or for liberty.

Centuries ago European art reached a high level, and students in the Americas,

An exhibition of watercolor drawings of pre-Columbian art by the author of this article, depicting pottery and textiles of various cultures found in Peru, will be on view at the Pan American Union until December 5, 1941.

still mindful of their European heritage, followed the masters of the different schools, Spanish, Dutch, Italian, French.

Thus there developed on this continent, in the art realm, a sort of Euro-American art. Since the Discovery American art, ignoring the nourishment of its own natural roots, has until now not created anything distinctively its own, remaining oblivious to the opulent and original art of pre-Columbian America with its countless styles and patterns, rich material for the establishment of our own American schools.

The whole of Europe and parts of Asia and Africa now are at the mercy of the elements of destruction and we see the decay of all moral and artistic values. The fate of these continents shows America its mission.

Havoc is being wrought in countries whose museums and libraries contained priceless cultural treasures, created by the genius of many generations. Churches, families, and moral and spiritual incentive are being destroyed. With such conditions prevailing, where can the American continent find the patterns for its Euro-America? And should it come to pass that the march of cultural and intellectual progress is halted, must the New World stand still and adhere to traditional forms while it waits for the reestablishment of normal life in Europe? No, because America has an inexhaustible supply of spiritual power, and the time has come when every citizen of the American continent feels entrusted with new responsibilities. We must be not only custodians of the cultural treasures of the embattled countries, but creators of new works of art based on the great and rich past of our own hemisphere. Unfortunately this past is to the majority of us literally a *terra incognita*.

Lack of knowledge must not prevent America from carrying out its great mission. We must understand that life in America did not begin with Columbus. We must learn the history of the continent, understand all its values, recognize its sequences, and accept the models of the highest cultures left by the great North and South American peoples as a basis for the fulfillment of America's responsibility as light-bearer in the coming darkness.

In order to understand the unique and exceptional value of pre-Columbian art in Peru and its importance to the American continent today, we must bear in mind several things. First, this art was not art alone, but served as a written language: it was a code of laws, a Bible, the moral and spiritual way of life, which had symbolic expression in sculpture, painting, ceramics, textiles, and other mediums. It remains today the history of highly advanced civilizations which had no written word. These symbols were not superficial decorations for the every-day life of the ancient peoples who created them; they were born of an innate compulsion to express and to execute in beautiful forms the creed and philosophy of life of their makers. Art was an instrument for transmitting and explaining spiritual impressions of surrounding phenomena.

In those ancient times art helped the primitive man of America to conquer the natural chaos in social and domestic relations. It gave him landmarks on the road of his spiritual development and assisted him to create the series of states whose structure was not inferior to the so-called classical states of ancient Egypt, Greece, or Rome.

This ancient art formed a religion based not upon material but upon moral values. It framed a code of law founded upon high respect for the individual. It created its own skills, such as medicine, irrigation, city planning, and weaving, for the benefit of the people.

Are the culture and civilization created

Water color by Constantino Malinovsky

FIGURE 1. A JAR OF THE MOCHICA CULTURE

The man's figure closely resembles the Sphinx, but is not copied from it.

by these ancient peoples to be regarded as specifically American, or are they products of physical ties with and spiritual influences of the Old World? The time-worn question arises, whether in human groups completely isolated from each other and from the rest of the world, learning and art develop along the same lines as they do in groups of people living in constant touch with other groups.

This question must be answered affirmatively because progress, material as well as spiritual, advanced similarly in all parts of the earth, irrespective of place, time, or intercommunication.

Parallels and divergencies between cultural forms and the development of learning in the Old World and in pre-Columbian America are marked by common problems of relationship between the inner logic of things and inner causes on the one hand, and the outer conditions of life on the other.

Some outer resemblances between cultures on the American continent and Old World civilizations, particularly in the Near and the Far East, gave rise, when viewed superficially, to numerous theories concerning contacts and influences between the two continents.

Water color by Constantino Malinovsky

FIGURE 2. ANOTHER JAR OF THE MOCHICA CULTURE
The potato is here interpreted to symbolize the cycle of life.

But if one looks a little deeper and takes into consideration the inner meaning, one can see clear evidence for progress along similar lines irrespective of isolation from or of contacts with one or another group of peoples.

For example, there is a huaco (*Figure 1*) from the Mochica culture of ancient Peru on which the figure of a reclining man has the same pose as that of the Egyptian Sphinx, and the same inexplicable gaze into eternity, beyond time and space.

This composition indicates that an artist wanted to express a symbolic idea, something more than merely a man in an uncomfortable position. The realism of the art of the pre-Columbian epoch, especially among the Mochicas, would not have permitted the artist to depart from actuality. But where could the artist have found a model for this composition?

At first glance it might seem that its model was the Egyptian Sphinx, and therefore we could come to a ready conclusion—the artist was under the influence of Egypt. But we must remember that for the ancient world nature was the sole source for art; hence we must look to nature for the model. We can find it without difficulty—a well-fed and con-

tented feline, before it falls asleep, often takes the pose we see in the picture, which has a striking similarity to the Egyptian Sphinx. We can observe the beautiful lines in the pose of the body frozen to stillness, with unwinking eyes fixed in the direction of the other world, seeing nothing about them.

All these considerations prompted the artist of the Old World as well as that of the American continent to create this pose, familiar to us in the Sphinx, as symbolic of his philosophy.

If this composition had resulted from an alien influence then it would vary only in certain details, preserving its conventionality in the main features.

This is particularly clear in all pictures produced by Near Eastern cultures. A striking parallelism of ideas and similarities in composition suggest an easy conclusion about various influences, but this obscures the main fact, that the model was taken from surrounding life and seen through a unique prism of local spiritual creeds and philosophy.

Parallels but not influences can be found in all aspects of pre-historic art everywhere. Until very recently historians of art ignorantly held, disregarding the art of the American continent, that so-called still life had its origin in the amazing Pompeiian frescoes and mosaics. But as a matter of fact, this is far from being true. The work of American artists of the pre-Columbian epoch shows that this genre was known to them and that they reached a real perfection in it.

Similarity of styles, as interpreted in such a history of art, which teaches us that "the shores of the Mediterranean sea are the birthplace of classical art," again suggests a hasty and shallow conclusion, that the Near East exercised a certain influence on the art of the American continent.

As in the preceding example, parallelism arises only from the fact that the models were supplied by obliging nature. These compositions of fish, crustaceans, fruits and vegetables (as well as all imitative art in the Americas) are absolutely individual, original and free from any foreign influence. American classic styles of still life were derived from the same abundance of models, but with the single distinction that this genre on the American continent did not come into being through gluttony and does not have the materialistic quality of low greediness that it had in the Old World.

The native American was inspired by his own creative genius and he attached a spiritual, noble, and elevated character to all growing things, however insignificant.

If one ponders over the problem of creative power, one will find that this question is posed by all primitive art. The real artist is always true to himself; no matter what he touches he always transfigures it and to everything he gives a special character: he can "extract from commonness" almost any interpretation. The artist is able to catch the vital significance in various commonplace or ugly phenomena that escape the eye, ear, or insight of an ordinary man.

A striking example is to be found in another Mochica huaco (*Figure 2*), an adaptation of the potato motif to which the artist, while not wholly disregarding outer form, gave also a symbolic meaning. In the portrayal of this common vegetable he personified the idea of the family as a symbol of the cycle of life in man and in the body politic.

In this huaco each knob is made a human image. The two large heads symbolize the dual basis of the family, the father and the mother. Between them is their larger child, its head completely shaped. It is ready to begin its own life, which in turn will serve as a source for

new generations. Only a very thin neck fastens the head to the main body.

On the mother's breast is an infant and there is still another child not yet wholly formed; they signify the perpetuity of life brought forth for the benefit of society.

At first glance all designs in pre-Columbian art give an impression of being thoughts hardly reasoned; each seems to be only a spark of fantasy, a whim, or a thoughtless sketch. But if you look at them a little more attentively you will notice that beneath the obvious simplicity a magnificent skill begins to disclose itself, a skill that is closely allied to deep thought and to genuine, burning artistic feeling.

From all this one receives the impression of something greater that is hidden under the visible casualness and lightness.

Contemplating the creations of the obscure artists of that faraway epoch, one experiences a feeling of joy, peace, and faith in the immortality of pure and profound art. In ancient times the artists worked not for the sake of attracting the attention of critics or the public, but with a desire to express their personal poetic feeling and comprehension through one image or another.

Those artists succeeded in making the strings of human souls vibrate with yearning for unattainable ideals or with the joy of existence.

The particular charm of pre-Columbian art is complicated in character; we are fascinated by the delicate lines that illustrate the unlimited flight of fancy of their creator, and by their simplified technique, which tells us of their complete freedom of spirit.

This art in its various moods lays bare the very souls of its creators in the simple but vital compositions in which ancient generations have so beautifully incarnated their cherished thoughts and feelings.

Herein lies the particular value of pre-Columbian art, which is awaiting a still more magnificent renaissance because of the great talents of its heirs on the American continent.

Brazilian Mineral Resources

BRAZIL has approximately half the land and half the population of South America. Like the continental United States, which it exceeds in area, it is rich in mineral resources, some of which are of particular interest to the defense industries of this country.

The Bureau of Mines of the United States Department of the Interior published in the July 1941 issue of the *Foreign Minerals Quarterly* an interesting and extensive study of the *Mineral Resources, Production and Trade of Brazil*, prepared by C. W. Wright, Foreign Mineral Specialist, attached to Foreign Service, Department of State, in collaboration with the Brazilian Department of Mines, the American Consulate General in Rio de Janeiro, and the local mine managers. The succeeding pages are excerpted from that study, which should be consulted by any one interested in technical details, mining laws, labor and federal controlling organizations, and taxes.

Brazil is an agricultural country which has shown significant growth in mineral industries during the past decade, and Government and business minds in the country today are fully aware of the need

for Brazil to expand her industries so as to depend less upon imported products and thus increase the standard of living by wider use of domestic raw materials. This expansion is evident at São Paulo and Belo Horizonte.[1]

The industrialization of Brazil did not really get under way until the World War of 1914–18. Brazil then realized the extent of her dependence on supplies from foreign countries and forthwith took steps to augment local output of products in practically every field. Much real progress has been made since that time, yet Brazil still depends on foreign sources for a large volume of articles that could be produced at home, and it now seems probable that the present war will have the effect of administering a second potent stimulant to Brazilian industry, particularly with reference to iron and steel goods; abundant raw materials of high quality for their manufacture are available locally.

Brazil has a greater variety and larger quantity of mineral products than most South American republics, but because of inadequate transportation facilities from mines to seaboard, only the more favorably situated properties have been exploited. Mine development in Brazil would have been more extensive, in the opinion of the author of the study under discussion, had the Mining Code of 1934 and the amendments that followed been less drastic against investment by foreign capital.

The following table gives the chief mineral exports of Brazil in 1938-39:

[1] *In accordance with the revised spelling now official in Brazil, the following new forms of place names are used in this article: Baía (Bahia); Belo Horizonte (Bello Horizonte); Goias (Goyaz); Lafaiete (Lafayette); Mato Grosso (Matto Grosso); Minas Gerais (Minas Geraes); Santa Catarina (Santa Catharina); Vitória (Victoria).*—EDITOR.

Chief mineral exports of Brazil, 1938–39

[In metric tons]

Commodity	1938	1939	Country of destination—1939
Bauxite	12, 928	18, 279	Argentina, 18,279.
Beryllium	203	276	Italy, 205; United States, 68; Great Britain, 2; Germany, 1.
Chromite	934	3, 754	Germany, 3,754.
Columbite	13	35	Great Britain, 18; United States, 8; Germany, 7; Japan, 2.
Copper ore	100	97	Japan, 97.
Diamonds, 1000 carats	88	194	England, 69; Belgium, 65; United States, 60.
Carbonados (value in contos[1]).	509	1, 021	Germany, 378; United States, 374; England, 134; Belgium, 122; others, 13.
Ilmenite	155	10	Great Britain, 10.
Iron ore	368, 510	396, 938	Germany, 151,613; Dantzig, 137,665; Poland, 23,520; Canada, 21,793; France, 20,787; Holland, 11,176; United States, 9,550; Belgium, 9,150; England, 7,112; Czechoslovakia, 4,572.
Pig iron	2, 328	23, 414	Argentina, 17,863; Belgium-Luxemburg, 3,596; Sweden, 1,550; Uruguay, 200; United States, 105; Norway, 100.
Lead ore	870	947	Belgium, 583; United States, 364.
Manganese ore	136, 843	189, 003	United States, 134,963; Germany, 37,306; Czechoslovakia, 5,964; Holland, 4,572; Belgium, 3,658; Dantzig, 2,540.
Monazite	323	48	United States, 48.
Mica	521	435	United States, 124; Japan, 112; Great Britain, 61; India, 60; Germany, 37; France, 34; Italy, 7.

[1] Conto now equals $51.20.—EDITOR.

Chief mineral exports of Brazil, 1938–39—Continued

[In metric tons]

Commodity	1938	1939	Country of destination—1939
Quartz crystals	747	678	Japan, 383; Great Britain, 163; Germany, 92; United States, 28; Holland, 8; others, 4.
Rutile	377	489	Great Britain, 239; Germany, 147; United States, 90; Sweden, 10; France, 2.
Salt	235, 100	447, 348	Bolivia, 391,560; Colombia, 55,788.
Tungsten (kg.)	2, 090	7, 900	Germany, 7,900.
Tantalite (kg.)	25	24	Great Britain, 11; United States, 6; Japan, 3; Germany, 3; Sweden, 1.
Zirconium	1, 492	1, 463	United States, 1,177; Holland, 198; Germany, 52; Great Britain, 27; Japan, 3; others, 6.

Brazil's mineral exports for 1941 are roughly estimated to be 12 million dollars. United States consumers could use the major part of these. Thus far the United States Government, through its procurement agencies, has purchased only small quantities; but arrangements for much larger purchases of mineral products from Brazil are now under consideration by the Brazilian and United States Governments.

The output of manganese[2] ore from the producing centers in [Minas Gerais could be increased from 30,000 to 50,000 tons a month were it possible to improve transportation facilities over the Central do Brasil Railway. If more locomotives and ore cars are necessary, credits might be given for their purchase against consignments of ore.

United States steel industries east of the Alleghenies could use about 1,500,000 tons of Brazilian iron ore a year now and more in future. About 10,000 tons a month is now being transported by automobile truck from Itabira to Drummond, a distance of 25 miles, and thence by rail to the port of Vitória. Were it possible to arrange a credit for necessary rails, locomotives, and ore cars against future deliveries of ore, this would bring into production the greatest source of iron ore supply in the Americas. The chromite deposits in the State of Baía remain to be developed and transport facilities introduced; investigations indicate a possible output of 100,000 tons of fair-grade ore. Studies of financial needs to bring these deposits into greater production should be made and presented for consideration by the Brazilian Government.

Even though Brazil produces but 10 percent of our normal imports of industrial diamonds [those coming from Brazil are black diamonds called carbonados], it is advisable to encourage and to acquire this output, as such purchases will add to Brazil's dollar credits and facilitate a greater output later.

Quartz crystals are another important product of which Brazil is the sole important producer in the Americas. Better organization of the present systems of pro-

[2] *Manganese, industrial diamonds, quartz crystals, mica and beryl are placed among strategical materials for the following reasons: Manganese is essential as a purifying agent in steel making and also as an alloy. Diamonds are necessary for drilling bits and grinding wheels. Quartz crystals are used in radio frequency control devices, for radio and sound reproduction applications and in certain scientific instruments. Mica is employed in the manufacture of electric appliances, devices and machinery, many of which are of importance in aviation and communications. Beryl is used in the manufacture of copper alloys and ceramics and for cast setting diamond core bits and reaming shells. The use of other strategical minerals is explained in the text.*—EDITOR.

Courtesy of Charles Will Wright

BELO HORIZONTE, CAPITAL OF THE STATE OF MINAS GERAIS

The central part of this State, whose name means General Mines, is the most important area in Brazil for mineral deposits.

ducing and purchasing quartz crystals would probably permit doubling the annual output. Both the United States Government and Great Britain are interested in acquiring Brazil's output, and their interests could well be combined to prevent competition.

Brazilian mica, though second in quality to that from India, is nevertheless important for the United States, and the output of the producing areas could be more than doubled were funds and technicians made available.

Beryl is in great demand today for the production of beryllium, used in alloys for airplane parts. Its output in Brazil should be encouraged by extending purchases from the small producers and by developing concentrating methods for low-grade ores.

The titanium ores, rutile and ilmenite, are also in demand, not only for the manufacture of white paints but as an alloy for steel. Their output should also be encouraged.

Geologically the most important area for mineral deposits is the central part of Minas Gerais, and detailed geological studies have been extended where the iron, manganese, and gold mines occur. Considerable geological work has also been done in the coal fields in the states to the southwest and in the oil fields northeast of Rio de Janeiro.

Iron ore

Brazil's iron ores are its most valuable mineral raw materials and one of the world's outstanding reserves for future supply. Iron-ore deposits are present in nearly every State in Brazil, but mine developments have been confined largely to the State of Minas Gerais, where mountains of high-grade low-phosphorus hematite ore occur.

In the State of Minas Gerais alone the

iron-ore reserves are estimated to be as follows: 1,500,000,000 tons of compact hematite with over 65 percent iron; 3,500,000,000 tons of itabirite ore with 50 to 60 percent iron; 10,000,000,000 tons of low-grade ores with 30 to 50 percent iron.

The Itabira district lies about equally distant—225 miles in a straight line—from the port of Rio de Janeiro to the south and Vitória to the east.

The exploitation of this district awaits extension of the Vitória and Minas Railroad from Drummond, a distance of 25 miles by automobile road from the Caue. This railway is narrow-gage (1 meter) and about 300 miles long. Several thousand tons of ore a month are being loaded on trucks and transported to Drummond and thence by rail to Vitória, where it is delivered on board steamers at about $3.00 a ton. When this extension is completed and more locomotives and cars are available as well as more switches and repairs to the road-bed made, the capacity of this railway could be increased to a million tons or more a year, while with a new broad-gage track, which is under consideration, the annual capacity is estimated at a possible 4 million tons.

The fact that this ore is a hematite easily reducible in the blast furnace and far superior in this respect to magnetite, the prevailing ore in Sweden and Chile, places it in a privileged position in the international market for iron ore.

Recently arrangements were made between the Cia. Brasileira do Mineraçao e Siderurgia, S. A., and the Bethlehem Steel Co. for the sale of 40,000 tons of iron ore a month from this group of mines; and the problems of financing the 25-mile railroad extension, providing rolling stock, and preparing the mine to increase output are being studied by American and Brazilian capitalists.

The Casa de Pedra mine, operated by A. Thun & Cia., which is 5 miles northeast of Congonhas do Campo, supplies the greater part of the iron ore exported from Brazil. During the last 4 years, these exports averaged about 200,000 tons, most of which was shipped to the Stahlunion in Germany. The mountain of ore being mined consists of a massive, irregular deposit with a north-south trend 12,000 feet long, averaging 2,000 feet in width, with a bulge 4,000 feet wide at the southeast end. The known ore reserves are estimated at 60 million tons of high-grade hematite plus a like amount of probable reserves and a few hundred million tons of canga itabirite ore.

During the first 9 months of 1940 total shipments were 91,225 tons. Two grades

Photograph by Charles Will Wright

CLIFF OF SOLID IRON ORE, ITABIRA

Brazilian iron ores constitute one of the world's outstanding reserves of that mineral.

of product are being shipped—a high-grade hematite with 68 percent iron and 0.06 percent phosphor, which goes to the Bethlehem Steel Co., and a 65 percent hematite with 0.1 percent phosphor, which goes to Canada. These ores contain about 0.4 percent manganese and 2 percent silica.

The output of this mine is handicapped by the inability of the Central do Brasil Railway to transport the ore. If ore cars and locomotives were available, several times present shipments from this mine could be exported.

Due north of Congonhas do Campo about 8 miles by automobile road is the Fazenda do Pires mine, where the surface is covered with rubble ore or canga, said to comprise 170,000 tons of known ore reserves.

The northern iron-ore belt extends from Itatiaiussu to Sabará (about 40 miles) and toward Santa Barbara to the east; in places it is several miles wide. The Minas series may be followed along it practically without interruption. Besides the numerous surface deposits of canga ore, which is mined and sold to the local iron and steel plants, deposits of the hard hematite ore are being developed and mined for export. One of the largest of these hematite masses, said to have an ore reserve of 5 million tons, is at the Saraiva mine on the west side of the Paraopeda River Valley, 2 miles from the Feixo do Funil railway station and 350 miles from Rio de Janeiro. This mine is operated by the Minas de Ferro, S. A. This ore brings a high price because of its high iron and low phosphorus and sulfur content.

A branch line two miles long is under construction from Feixo do Funil to the mine, including a 4,000-foot incline at 18°. When it is completed the present output capacity will be increased from a few hundred to a few thousand tons a day. Exports, however, will depend on transport facilities on the Central do Brasil Railway, which today are the limiting factor.

Another deposit being exploited by A. Thun & Cia. lies 3 miles from the Feixo do Funil station. Here a mixture of detrital hard hematite and canga ore is being shipped, and the ore reserves are said to be large. Shipments from this railway station during the first half of 1940 were 17,290 tons. Other groups of deposits being exploited for export trade lie along the divide several miles south of the Sarzedo railway station and northeast of the Brumadinho station, both on the Central do Brasil. Shipments for export during the first half of 1940 were 11,725 tons from Sarzedo and 20,025 tons from Brumadinho.

These are the mines that will supply the new steel plant in Brazil with its major tonnage of iron-ore requirements, estimated at 550,000 tons a year. To relieve traffic on the Central do Brasil Railway, a project has been prepared for a new line starting at Camapuan, on the railway 30 miles south of Feixo do Funil. This line will go up the valley 140 miles through Entre Rios on to Andrelandia. From Andrelandia a railway runs to the port of Angra dos Reis, which passes within 6 miles of the proposed location for Brazil's new iron and steel plant at Volta Redonda. The question of financing this new railway project is still to be solved.

Iron and steel[3]

Brazil's iron and steel industry has been of minor importance in the past, even though this country is endowed with the world's largest reserves of high-grade iron ore. As far back as 1806 iron was smelted

[3] *See "The Story of Iron and Steel in Brazil," by H. W. D. Mayers, in the* BULLETIN *of the Pan American Union for October 1938.*

Photograph by Charles Will Wright

A MANGANESE MINE NEAR LAFAIETE, MINAS GERAIS

Brazil has agreed with the United States to restrict to the latter until May 1943 the exportation of manganese ores up to an annual total of 500,000 tons.

in Minas Gerais, and since then many small furnaces were built to manufacture pig iron. In 1860 a Belgian named Monlevade started the first steel plant with a rolling mill, but it was not until 1934 that the more pretentious program at the town of Monlevade and the new plant at Sabará of the Belgo-Mineira got under way and a real industry was begun. This apparent neglect has been due largely to the high price of available fuel (charcoal) and of imported metallurgical coke. Moreover, neither domestic demand for iron and steel nor transport facilities encouraged investment of capital in large steel plants.

In recent years increased domestic demand and the desire to be independent of rising iron and steel imports have aided expansion of this industry, as statistical records show. A still greater expansion is now in progress—namely, the erection of a blast furnace and steel plant at Volta Redonda,[4] south of Rio de Janeiro. This plant has been made possible by the combination of Brazilian and United States capital and technical experience. The new plant will have an annual capacity of 300,000 tons of steel products and will cost 45 million dollars, of which the Export-Import Bank is to supply 20 million. When completed in 1943 it will make Brazil less dependent on imports of structural steel, plates, rails, and other heavy-steel products that have been imported, largely at high prices, from Germany, Belgium, and England. Present

[4] *See "United States Loan for Brazilian Iron and Steel Mill" in the* BULLETIN *of the Pan American Union for December 1940.*

high prices, however, are partly the result of duties imposed on steel products by the Brazilian Government plus freight, insurance, and the difficulty of securing exchange. The imported products during 1939, in percentages, were:

Imported products	*Percent*
Rails	17
Structurals	5
Rounds and flats	16
Wire products	17
Tin plate	14
Sheets and plates	15
Tubes	10
Other	6
Total	100

Large-scale national production of steel products in Brazil will enable consumers to purchase in milreis, unhampered by exchange control, and at prices comparable to those prevailing in other steel-producing countries.

National production of pig iron has grown steadily from 35,000 tons in 1930 to 160,000 in 1939 and is to be increased further, particularly by the Cia. Belgo-Mineira at Monlevade, which today makes about one-half of the total output.

Today Brazil's annual consumption of iron and steel raw and manufactured products totals about 500,000 tons, of which 70 percent is imported.

Manganese ore

Deposits of manganese ore are numerous, the largest reserves being found in the States of Minas Gerais, Baía, and Mato Grosso. The largest producing company is A. Thun & Cia., Ltd., while the largest mine is that owned by the Cia. Meridional de Mineração near Lafaiete in Minas Gerais.

In 1940 practically all exports of manganese ore went to the United States of America. Production at present is said to be about 20,000 tons a month. Of the exports, 97 percent clear through the port of Rio de Janeiro and the rest through Baía. Stocks of manganese ore in September 1940 were 20,000 to 25,000 tons in the hands of exporters and 35,000 tons at the Meridional mine (which tonnage is available for export to the United States). The shortage of rolling stock and of coal for the railway has been acute. It is believed that production and exports could be tripled if adequate transport was available.

The biggest and best-known manganese deposits are in the State of Minas Gerais, the only producing state since 1933. The annual output during the last 4 years has averaged about 220,000 tons, of which about half has been shipped to the United States of America.

It is evident that Brazil is to become an important source of manganese ore for the United States, the world's largest consumer, and keen interest is already being taken in the possibilities of acquiring large tonnages over a period of years for consumers in the United States. The new steel plants to be built in Brazil will utilize about 6,000 tons annually, while present shipments of about 20,000 tons a month may be more than doubled for export trade.

During the World War of 1914–18, the output of manganese ore was stimulated by the high market price, and in 1916 production in Brazil reached nearly half a million tons. After the war, because of very poor railroad facilities, the tax on manganese-ore exports, and higher ocean freights than those enjoyed by the African and Russian producers, Brazil could not overcome these disadvantages, and during the depression of 1931 to 1933 most of the manganese mines ceased producing. In recent years the greater demand in Europe and now in the United States has caused increased interest and activity, and many

of the abandoned mines are being reopened. Brazil now has the opportunity to secure and maintain the American market for manganese ore against overseas producers.

Chromium

Brazil's chromite deposits are of especial interest to the United States, because 99 percent of the chromium consumed in the latter country is imported, largely from such overseas sources as Turkey, Rhodesia, and South Africa. The most important application of chromite ores is in the manufacture of ferrochrome used to make chromium steel for gasoline-motor parts and in alloys with other metals for tool steel and "rustless" steel. There is also a large consumption of chromite in the manufacture of refractories for lining furnaces.

All production and exports of Brazilian chromium ore are centered in the State of Baía, and the ore is shipped from its port of São Salvador. These deposits were developed extensively during the World War, and in recent years renewed interest is being taken in them.

The deposits are said to be extensive, but present mining operations are confined to the Cascabulhos mine near Campo Formoso.

Future output depends on improvements in transportation facilities, which means reorganization of the railway company with the addition of much more rolling stock and repairs to the road bed, with its 1-meter gage, throughout its length of 286 miles. The grade of the product may be much improved by a gravity concentrating plant.

Tungsten

If tungsten is alloyed with high-speed tool steel its hardness is not destroyed by high temperatures, making it invaluable in the machining of metals. For this reason alone tungsten is classified as one of the most important strategic minerals. Tungsten is also employed in the manufacture of filaments for electric-light bulbs and because of its efficiency has replaced all other filament materials. The United States depends on overseas sources for nearly half of its requirements of this metal.

Small deposits of tungsten ore occur in the State of Rio Grande do Sul and some unimportant deposits in Minas Gerais and Goias.

Nickel

Nickel is another highly important alloy metal for use in armor plate, for the production of stainless steels, and for special machine parts. The United States depends almost entirely on Canada for its supply of nickel.

Nickel in Brazil occurs chiefly in the regions of São José do Tocantins in the State of Goias and at Livramento and Ipanema in Minas Gerais. Production could be greatly increased by better transportation and additional electric power.

Gold

Placer mining was the source of gold in Brazil's greatest period of output—from 1700 to 1800—when the deposits were extensively worked by slaves. In the 19th century the discovery of gold in California, South Africa, and other countries detracted attention from the mines in Brazil, and production decreased. During the present century more attention is being given to the gold lode deposits, although the *faiscadores*, or prospectors, continue to be very active, still using their primitive methods along the gold-bearing streams. This activity has been encouraged by the higher price for gold since 1932.

Gold in important amounts was discovered in Minas Gerais as far back as 1700, and estimates indicate that the value

Courtesy of Charles Will Wright

PLACER GOLD MINING NEAR DIAMANTINA

Prospecting for gold along streams has been encouraged since 1932 by its rise in price.

of the annual output from 1700 to 1750 was $1,000,000 to $1,500,000, and from 1750 to 1775, $1,750,000, with even greater amounts in later years. Up to 1800 all gold-mining operations had been the washing of surface deposits. Among the first lode mines worked was the Gongo Socco mine of the Imperial Mines Association, 18 miles east of Sabará in Minas Gerais; this mine is reported to have yielded 11 tons of gold between 1826 and 1829.[5]

Statistics show that gold output from the lode mines increased from 3,659 kilos in 1934 to 4,612 in 1939, 95 percent coming from the mines in Minas Gerais. In 1939 the total amount of gold purchased by the Bank of Brazil was 9,023 kilos, valued at about $11,000,000, the difference of 4,411 kilos, including scrap gold, being from the placer mines.

[5] *Bain, H. F., and Read, T. T., "Ores and Industry in South America": 1934, p. 113.*

Lead

The production of lead in Brazil is still comparatively undeveloped, and only in recent years have exploitation of the lead ore deposits and erection of a lead smelter been undertaken with encouraging results, largely by Government aid. Since 1924 annual statistics show exports ranging from 100 tons of lead ore to a maximum of 1,146 in 1931, after which they declined to under 100 tons in 1935.

Lead-silver ores occur along the Paranapiacaba Range in the southern part of São Paulo.

The Usina de Chumbo e Prata, operated by the Instituto de Pesquisas Tecnológicas for the State Government of São Paulo, was planned by a Brazilian engineer, based upon the studies and experiences of a recent trip to the United States and Canada. The mill, built in 1939 is near Apiai near the communication systems of the region and is centered

over the deposits of lead and silver, which are situated in an area within a radius of 70 kilometers.

The mill receives ores from all the national companies, which work the deposits of the Ribeira de Iguape Valley in the State of São Paulo as well as Paraná and transform them into refined lead and silver, recovering all the byproducts. Charges are made only for the cost of the concentration and refining, thus assuring the national companies of profits and enabling them to divert the necessary capital to the development of mines.

The building of this authorized mill through the action of the Government not only reflects a desire to bring about rapid development of the home mineral industry on a sound basis but also realization of the plan to place the industry on a well-organized basis, by construction of a network of communication lines between the more important deposits and a system of highways to permit easier exploitation and transportation of the ores to the mill. Simultaneously, prospects and geological and genetic studies of certain deposits of the region have been carried on by the Instituto Geográfico e Geológico of the State of São Paulo.

Titanium

Titanium occurs profusely in Brazil in two minerals, rutile (in Minas Gerais and Goias) and ilmenite (in the beach sands along the coast of Baía, Espírito Santo, and Rio de Janeiro).

Because of the increasing use of titanium oxide and the market demand for titanium minerals for its productoin, Brazil could easily become an important source of rutile and ilmenite if these sources were developed and exploited on a larger scale.

Zirconium

Exports of zirconium ores are for the most part to the United States, Norway, Holland, and Germany. The greatest use of this mineral is in the preparation of refractory materials for lining electric furnaces and crucibles. Other uses are in hardening steel, clouding glass and enamels, and purifying water and as a substitute for bismuth in X-ray work. Combined with carbon it is used as an abrasive for cutting glass. The largest tonnage of ores comes from alluvial sands as rolled ore; next are the alluvial pebbles; and last and least important is the ore in veins.

The chief deposits of zirconium in Brazil are in Minas Gerais on the plateau of Poços de Caldas. The mineral reserves of the known zirconium ore deposits are estimated to be 2 million tons, enough to supply industry for many years.

Bauxite

The aluminum ore bauxite occurs widely in Brazil, and extensive areas have been explored in the States of Minas Gerais, Espírito Santo, and Maranhão. At present most of the bauxite production is from the deposits on the Poços de Caldas plateau in Minas Gerais.

The output of Brazilian bauxite is not employed as a source of aluminum, but in the local production of sulfate of aluminum for purification of water at city reservoirs and for aluminous quick-setting cements. The exports of bauxite to Argentina are for these same uses.

It is reported that contracts have been made to ship large tonnages of ore to the United States for the aluminum industry and that plans are being considered to install electric furnaces in the State of São Paulo, where cheap power is available for the production of aluminum, thus replacing present imports amounting to 1,500 tons a year.

The Brazilian bauxite trade is still in its initial stages, despite its rapid development during the last 4 years. Domestic con-

Photograph by Charles Will Wright

MINING BRAZILIAN MICA

Brazil holds eighth place in the world production of mica, a strategic material in the defense program of the United States.

sumption may be expected to increase with establishment of improved facilities for the water supply of Rio de Janeiro which has been under discussion for the last 10 years and might provide a market for an additional 10,000 metric tons a year. As for the export trade, it is not believed that Brazilian shippers can compete in the international market at present, principally because of high freight rates and lack of transport facilities, which offset the natural advantages of low extraction costs and large reserves.

Phosphates

At Ipanema, west of Sorocaba on the Sorocabana Railroad in the State of São Paulo, is an extensive deposit of apatite. The product is dry-ground to a powder and sacked for sale on the local market for manufacture of superphosphates.

The Government initiated development of this mine, installed the plant, and has now turned its operation over to a private company on a royalty basis.

Mica

Only in the 20th century was a real beginning made in producing mica of commercial quality in Brazil. Output of this product attained maximum development during the World War of 1914–18. It declined afterwards but in recent years its output for export trade shows a notable increase, and today Brazil occupies eighth place in the list of mica-producing countries; in fact, its output amounts to 4 percent of world production. Brazil's main production and best-quality mica come from the State of Minas Gerais. Total exports in 1940 amounted to 624,436 kilograms, of which the United States took 215,801, and Japan 220,623.

Quartz crystals

For a number of years Brazil has been the principal and almost the sole source of supply for quartz crystals. The only other source worthy of mention is Madagascar, and of the quartz crystals exported from that place only a very small percentage has so far been found suitable for optical and electrical purposes.

Most Brazilian crystals exported until recently were obtained from the northern part of the State of Minas Gerais, but Baía, Goias, and Mato Grosso are increasingly important as producing States.

Export statistics are the only guide to production, and these during the last 4 years were as follows:

Exports of quartz crystals, in kilos

[Kilo equals 2.2 lbs.]

Destination	1936	1937	1938	1939	8 mos., 1940
Japan	153, 038	204, 355	437, 844	382, 441	222, 504
Great Britain	12, 725	40, 131	163, 805	163, 456	343, 041
Germany	23, 132	29, 806	96, 201	92, 241	10, 129
United States	12, 396	17, 421	32, 396	28, 058	42, 258
Other	23, 185	8, 062	16, 626	11, 356	[1] 27, 630
Total	224, 476	299, 785	746, 872	677, 552	645, 562

[1] During the first 8 months of 1940, 23,273 kilos of quartz crystals were shipped to Italy and 5,228 kilos to the Netherlands and these are believed to have been reshipped to Germany. Besides the crystals for optical and electrical use shipments of crystal fragments for fusing purposes amounting to 292,919 kilos were made to Great Britain and 23,000 kilos to Italy from January to August 1940.

Brazil is now at maximum output from the productive areas; this output is determined by the number of *garimpeiros* or prospectors in the field. Increased output depends on opening up of new fields or additional labor in the present areas. The total output for 1940 may reach 1,000,000 kilos.

Most of the Brazilian production of crystals does not meet American specifications as to weight as but 18 percent of good quality crystals are above 3 pounds, and only part of this will meet the A and B specifications of the United States Treasury Procurement Division. In the past the largest and best-quality crystals were sold in part on the American market and in part to Great Britain, while Japan took most of the smaller crystals and large stones of inferior grade. Recently, however, there has been greater competition for the best-quality crystal by the Japanese and Italians, and it is believed that large portions of these purchases went to Germany either through Japan and Russia or by the Italian air service from Rio de Janeiro. Of Brazil's total shipments of crystals for electrical and optical use, about 20 percent goes to the United States; of the crystals received in the United States, only about one-quarter is used in the optical industry and one-quarter in the electrical industry, while the rest is resold for other purposes. In 1940 the average New York price for good crystals weighing 1½ pounds and over, suitable for optical and electrical use, was $6.50 to $7.50 a pound.

Diamonds

The output of diamonds in Brazil is slightly more than 3 percent of the total world production and represents 0.5 percent of the total value of Brazil's exports.

As to quantity, Mato Grosso was the

SORTING OUT DIAMONDS FROM GRAVEL AFTER PRELIMINARY WASHINGS

Brazilian industrial diamonds are considered to average much better than those from South Africa.

Photograph by Charles Will Wright

leading producer in 1939, with Minas Gerais in the first place in value of stones produced.

Estimates show that about 60 percent of the diamonds sold is for industrial use but that only about half of these meet United States procurement specifications.

The United States, which was only a small importer during the last few years, in 1939 was Brazil's largest customer. Because of the increased demand for industrial diamonds in the United States there probably will be a still greater demand for Brazilian diamonds in the future to offset the loss in part of the European market.

On the average, Brazilian industrial diamonds are considered much better than those from the Cape, owing to the constant attrition they have undergone for ages in the streams, which removed all impurities and incidentally provided for survival of the hardest and most flawless stones.

Diamond deposits were discovered in 1729, and their exploitation from that date in Minas Gerais was one of the most important activities of Colonial Brazil. The country soon became the principal world producer of diamonds. The stones won an excellent reputation for unequaled clearness and brilliance and competed on even terms with the diamonds of Hyderabad, India, whose mines at Golconda served as a standard for Brazil. It may be said that worldwide popularization of this gem was due to its discovery in Brazil. Until that time diamonds were a monopoly of the Orient, and their use was restricted to the aristocratic class.

Brazil and India, the principal diamond fields in the 18th and 19th centuries, later yielded their position of leading importance to Africa, which later became the Diamond Continent with discovery of the precious gems in the Cape Colony, Transvaal, and the Orange Free State. In 1870, with the discovery of large diamond reserves in primary deposits, the Union of South Africa began to exert an enormous influence on the diamond market. From that time on, diamond regions dependent on alluvial production dropped to a secondary position. The latter group includes Brazil, which since that time has never been able to regain her former dominant position.

Coal

Interest in a domestic coal supply began with the construction of railways in 1854 and was encouraged by steam power-plant installations and by the use of gas for lighting and cooking. Houses in Brazil are seldom heated, and little is needed for this purpose.

The Brazilian coal fields are confined to the southern States—Rio Grande do Sul, Santa Catarina, Paraná, and São Paulo. Various attempts were made to exploit these fields during the last century but, except for use on the local railways in these States, the coal could not compete with that imported.

Without government protection, Brazil's coal industry could barely survive. One reason for this protection is that during world wars it is important to have domestic sources of coal supply, even though the quality is inferior to that imported.

In most parts of Brazil wood is plentiful and is used to replace coal as well as coke whenever the coal or coke price is excessive or there is a coal shortage.

Coal production in Brazil in 1915 was 15,000 tons and increased to 300,000 tons in 1920, to 400,000 in 1930, and to 840,000 tons in 1935, passing the million-ton mark in 1939. During the first 6 months of 1940 the output increased further to 643,377 tons—515,587 from Rio Grande do Sul, 125,548 from Santa Catarina, 1,376 from Paraná, and 866 from São Paulo. The grade of the coal can now be greatly improved by a modern washing plant installed in 1939 at the São Jerônimo mine, and it is planned to introduce such washing plants at the other mines.

Coal production is now centered at the São Jerônimo and Butia mines in Rio Grande do Sul, which supply about 80 percent of the total output.

In 1939 Brazil consumed 2,429,446 tons, of which domestic mines supplied 1,046,975 tons, or 43 percent. However, if one considers the calorific value of domestic coal, averaging 5,000 calories, and that of imported coal, averaging about 8,000 calories, domestic output is only about one-third of consumption.

The known coal reserves at the São Jerônimo and Butia mines are estimated at 25,000,000 tons, with a much larger tonnage of probable and possible reserves in the surrounding area. In the Santa Catarina fields the tonnage of developed coal is small, but that of probable and possible coal reserves is estimated at several hundred million tons.

Of future interest is the possibility of using the coal from the Santa Catarina fields for manufacturing the coke necessary for the iron and steel industry to be established in Brazil. This coal is said to have given good results in the coking tests made thus far, and its possible use in blast furnaces is being investigated. The new iron and steel plant will require about 400,000 tons of coke annually, and it is anticipated that part of this may be supplied from domestic sources.

Oil fields

Geologically speaking most of Brazil is too old for oil horizons. There are, however, three areas of prospective value: (1) The Paraná synclinal basin, (2) a section of the Amazon Basin in the Territory of Acre, where there are numerous slate outcrops, and (3) part of the coastal belt from Marau in the State of Baía to the State of Alagoas.

All but the last are remote from transportation facilities and offer little incentive to venture large sums in exploratory work.

A circular area with a radius of 60 kilometers centered around the discovery well at Lobato in Baía was declared a national reserve on February 9, 1939, by

Decree 3701. In June of that year, Government petroleum operations were transferred to the National Petroleum Council, which undertook an extensive drilling campaign in September 1939. The Drilling & Exploration Co., Inc., of Los Angeles, Calif., was employed to conduct drilling operations, and new drilling equipment was imported from the United States. This company was expected to drill 9 to 12 wells during the contractual period of 18 months at well locations to be established by the National Petroleum Council.

Between November 28, 1939, and September 12, 1940, the National Petroleum Council in this manner completed seven wells in the vicinity of Lobato, with a total of 15,370 feet drilled.

At least two of the wells drilled by the Council at Baía struck oil in Cretaceous sedimentary beds. Complete information with respect to the quantity of oil recovered and the potential production of such wells has not been divulged by the Government. However, one well is known to have entered an oil horizon at a depth of 1,190 feet. There was some showing of gas, and an initial flow of 24 barrels in 24 hours was indicated. After flushing, the well settled back to a daily production of 11 or 12 barrels. The question of cementing the casing and installing pumping equipment is under consideration. All oil recovered to date has been employed in further drilling activites.

The Government has indicated that the oil discovered at Lobato has a paraffin base with a specific gravity of 0.844 and yields approximately 22 percent paraffin, 18 percent gasoline, 10 percent kerosene, 7 percent gas oil, and the remainder heavy products. The sulfur content is said to be only 0.13 percent. Maximum production attained was about 55 gallons in 12 hours.

In December 1939 the National Petroleum Council contracted the United Geophysical Co. of Pasadena, Calif., to conduct seismological geophysical surveys of areas in the States of Baía and Alagoas. This company is actively pursuing such studies with one portable and one motorized unit.

Other minerals discussed in the Bureau of Mines study from which the foregoing pages were taken are copper, zinc, mercury, magnesite, kaolin, asbestos, semiprecious stones and barite. Some pages are devoted to cement production.

The Inter-American Summer University at San José, Costa Rica

FLETCHER RYAN WICKHAM
Secretary of the University, Executive Secretary of the Pan American Student Forum

How FITTING that the picturesque, peaceful little republic of Costa Rica, which rightfully boasts of more teachers than soldiers, should be the seat of the First Inter-American Summer University in Central America!

Owing to difficulties in obtaining transportation, there was only one term of four weeks this past summer. The session was officially inaugurated on June 23, 1941, in the National Theater before an invited audience of two thousand people by Alejandro Aguilar Machado, the Director of the Liceo de Costa Rica (the boys' secondary school in San José) and Director of the Inter-American Summer University. The principal address was given by the Hon. Luis D. Tinoco Castro, Minister of Education, who stressed the cultural and intellectual aspects of the project. The visiting teachers from the United States, who occupied the stage, were welcomed by Señorita María Cristina Dittel, the only woman professor in the Liceo. A response was made in Spanish by Miss Fletcher Ryan Wickham, secretary-registrar of the University. Delightful musical selections were rendered by the chorus of the Colegio Superior de Señoritas and the a capella choir of three hundred voices from the Liceo; these songs brought forth admiring applause from the entire audience. The closing number was *God Bless America*, sung in English and Spanish by the group from the United States, who interpreted the chorus to include all the Americas. This number received hearty approval from the audience.

Twenty students from seven states in the United States matriculated in the numerous courses that were offered by Costa Rican professors. These included Spanish phonetics; beginners' courses in Spanish, phonetics and conversation; two lecture courses on inter-American relations in the Caribbean, one on the history of Central America, and an outline of Spanish-American literature, all given in Spanish. The classes were given by the following professors: Roberto Brenes-Mesén, who taught for many years at Northwestern University; Rogelio Sotela, secretary of the National University and an outstanding poet and writer; Raúl Chacón, former director of the Liceo and a leader in Costa Rican educational circles; Alejandro Aguilar Machado, director of the Liceo, former Minister of Education, and diplomat; Miguel Dávila, professor of English in the Liceo; and María Cristina Dittel, a young woman who has become prominent as an educator.

Two hundred five Costa Rican students and teachers took the following courses offered by teachers from the United States: survey course in United States literature, first half (Hattie Lee Hornbeak, Sunset High School, Dallas); methods in physical education (Jessyee Smith, James Bowie School, Dallas); methods in library science for primary schools (Mary Elizabeth Hambright, Lida Hooe School, Dallas); courses in English conversation (Fletcher Ryan

Wickham, Forest Avenue High School, Dallas).

Classes were held on weekdays from Tuesday through Friday. An enjoyable program of excursions was prepared for the weekends, to give the students an opportunity to become better acquainted with this charming country.

The closing ceremonies of the University were held on July 16. The presentation of certificates by Señor Aguilar to the students from the United States was followed by a gala dinner.

The Minister of Education and the American Chargé d'Affaires and Mrs. H. P. Dwyer entertained the entire group at two delightful functions; the Rotary Club held a luncheon for members of the group; the Faculty of the Liceo gave a jolly picnic and swimming party in the country at Ojo de Agua; and many other individuals and organizations helped to make the group's stay in Costa Rica agreeable.

So hospitable were the Costa Ricans that when it came time to leave the Americans departed with the keenest regret. No one was prepared for the gifts and bouquets of fragrant flowers that were presented the members of the group as they bade farewell to this pleasant people and this beautiful country, set as a jewel amidst green mountains. Many acquaintanceships were started, which no doubt will ripen into loyal friendships, and many cultural ties were formed, which will help promote American solidarity.

For the summer of 1942 a more extensive program of studies will be offered. One section, designed to meet immediate educational needs, will doubtless appeal to many teachers of Spanish who have already obtained their Master's degree with a major or minor in Spanish. This program of studies is offered to give the teacher a thorough knowledge of the history and literature of the Americas and to acquaint him with Portuguese. The

Courtesy of Fletcher R. Wickham

A GROUP OF FACULTY AND STUDENTS AT THE COSTA RICAN SUMMER SCHOOL

courses will follow in sequence, so that, if the teacher wishes, he may receive the degree of *Doctor en Letras Hispanoamericanas*, on satisfactory completion of the full program. Those not interested in working toward an advanced degree will doubtless desire to take some of the subjects, all of which will be given in Spanish. For next year they are as follows: survey of Spanish-American civilization; inter-American relations (1821–1900); and Portuguese (beginning course). No beginning classes in Spanish will be offered, and no student who has not had the equivalent of twenty hours in Spanish may be enrolled or audit classes.

The classes to be offered in English for Latin Americans will be selected before next spring to meet the needs of those who have enrolled by that time.

For qualified teachers and students who are not interested in the course leading to a higher degree, the following classes will be offered in Spanish for the summer of 1942: elementary conversation; advanced conversation; directed reading in Latin American literature and conversation; Spanish phonetics and diction; and advanced grammar and composition.

The student who attends this summer school has the advantage of living in a climate of perpetual spring (the elevation is 3,800 feet). He will be immersed in a Spanish-American atmosphere, where he can hear the language spoken constantly in his daily contacts and also at the motion pictures, if he cares to attend them.

Arrangements are under way to make a Spanish House, under the management of cultured Costa Ricans, available to a small group. For those who wish to live in a private family, an approved list of boarding places will be available. There are also two good hotels, the Gran Hotel Rex and the Hotel Europa, which are entirely modern in their accommodations.

Various all-expense tours have been arranged under the auspices of the W. Arthur Strain Travel Service, The Stoneleigh Hotel, Dallas, Texas, to meet individual requirements. All inquiries for travel service should be directed to Mr. Strain. For information as to courses and credits, write to Miss Fletcher Ryan Wickham, Secretary of the Inter-American Summer University, 225 South Windomere Avenue, Dallas. Illustrated leaflets will be ready for distribution by November 1, 1940.

Lack of transportation facilities by boat or apprehensions as to travel conditions should deter no one from attending the second session of the Inter-American Summer University. Pan American Airways offers direct, safe, and efficient travel service at moderate expense from Brownsville, Texas to San José, Costa Rica, with optional stop-over privileges at every capital in Central America and Mexico on the northbound passage. This arrangement should be of immense value to every teacher wishing to acquaint himself with Central America and Mexico at first hand, for this opportunity is offered by no other mode of travel.

Portuguese Page

LOAS DE NATAL E REIS

O' de casa, nobre gente,
Escutai e ouvireis,
Lá das bandas do Oriente
São chegados os três Reis.

Do letargo em que caístes,
Despertai, nobres senhores,
Vinde ouvir notícias belas
Que vos trazem os pastores.

Abrí a porta,
Se quereis abrir,
Que somos de longe,
Queremos nos ir.

Sabei que é nascido um Deus,
Soberano e Onipotente,
Adorado das nações
E da mais bravia gente.

Mortais, não fieis na sorte,
Vinde ao Menino aplaudir.
O seu virtuoso exemplo
Deveis contentes seguir.

Ora deem,
Se têm o que dar,
Que somos de longe,
Queremos andar!

Selected stanzas and music from "Canções Populares do Brasil," J. Ribeiro dos Santos, Ed., Rio de Janeiro, 191

In Spanish and Portuguese songs when one word ends with a vowel and the following word begins with one, the tv vowels are as a rule, combined and sung as one syllable.

Spanish Page

VILLANCICO

Bue · nas no·ches Ma·ri · · qui·ta ..... bue·
·nas no·ches ño Jo · · se' ..... bue · nas no·che Ma·ri·
·qui·ta ..... bue · nas no·che ño Jo · · se' ..... co·
· moha ma·ne·ci · doe! ni · · ño ..... co·
· moha ma·ne·ci · do Us · te ¡Ay! ..... Ni · ñoe
Dios ..... co · · moha· ma·ne·ci · do Us · te'.

Estrofa

Buenas noches, Mariquita!
Buenas noches, ño José!
Buenas noches, Mariquita!
Buenas noches, ño José!
Como ha amanecido el Niño?
Como ha amanecido Usté?
Ay! Niño e Dios,
Como ha amanecido Usté?
Señora Mariquita,
Yo la vengo a saludar,
A saludar a su hijito
Como pajita en el aire.

Estribillo

Ay Niño e Dios
Como pajita en el aire.

En el portal de Belén
Hacen fuego los pastores.
Para calentar al Niño
Que ha nacido entre las flores.

La estrella lleva a los Reyes
A ver al recién nacido.
A saludar a María
Y al Mesías prometido.

Señora doña María
Yo vengo del otro lado,
Y a su Niñito le traigo
Unos zapatos calados

Señora doña María
Yo vengo de la Angostura,
Y a su Niñito le traigo
Un canasto de verdura.

Señora doña María,
Cogollito de Alelí,
Encárguele a su Niñito.
Que no se olvide de mí.

Words and music from "Los Origenes del Arte Musical en Chile" by Eugenio Pereira Salas, Santiago, 1941, where it was reprinted from "Novena del Niño Dios," collected by Alfonso Letelier Llona.

Pan American *News*

Message of the President of Mexico

On September 1, 1941, General Manuel Ávila Camacho, President of Mexico, reported to the Congress and the nation on the first nine months of his administration. It was a long and detailed message, summarizing the principal events of his government since December 1, 1940, and outlining plans for future activity in practically every field of government—foreign affairs, national defense, economic, industrial, and agricultural problems, oil, mining, railways, education, labor, social welfare, Indian affairs, and local government.

Recalling that since the first day of his inauguration his Government has advocated national unity and a sincere forgetfulness of all the political differences and hostilities that are incompatible with true democracy, the President stressed the Government's tolerance and respect for human liberties. Mexico has offered frank and open hospitality to the victims of racial and political persecution, he said, the only bars being those necessary to protect national institutions and liberty from subversive elements. He stated that Mexico deems it a privilege to maintain a firm stand for democracy and to defend the postulates of equality and sovereignty of all free peoples. Referring briefly to relations with Europe, he made it plain that Mexico is determined not in any case to recognize conquests made by force.

As for inter-American relations, the President expressed first of all his satisfaction at being able to emphasize the strengthening of friendly relations with the United States, adding that the Good Neighbor Policy has always found a response in Mexico. He revealed that negotiations between Mexico and the United States leading to a clear, just, and equitable settlement of various pending problems have been almost concluded. The technical character of the matters under consideration required long and careful study, but the President stated that he hoped to be able soon to announce a solution to those long-standing difficulties. He pledged anew Mexico's full collaboration in continental defense in order to maintain inviolate not only its own territory and the sovereignty of its own institutions, but also "the integrity of America and the sacred right to think and work as free men in a hemisphere in which the great ideals of liberty and justice are affirmed."

In relation to national defense, the President stated that the principal aims of his government were to consolidate the public peace, in order to insure the tranquillity and confidence of the entire nation, and to take the necessary steps at any time to cooperate in the defense of its territorial integrity and continental security in conformity with the country's international promises. More emphasis is to be given during the coming year to modern methods and equipment in the preparation of army officers, and the law of compulsory military training will be put into effect as soon as the necessary preparations are completed.

According to the President, the outstanding phenomenon of the nation's economy during the period in question was the constant repatriation of capital and the entrance into the country of new wealth. The Bank of Mexico experienced the greatest annual increase in its metal

reserves since its foundation; up to July 31, 1941, the reserve had risen 119 percent. Bank deposits increased 44 percent, totaling 585 million pesos on the above date. However, money in circulation increased only 13 percent, and this slowness in the movement of deposits explains why wholesale prices went up only 7½ percent.

Commercial loans increased in a smaller proportion than did deposits. The Bank of Mexico reduced its credit operations with private business and those with its associated banks were cut in half. The latter in turn increased their short-term credits by about 30 percent. Commercial credits thus maintained equilibrium with the general trend of investment.

The Government is resolved, said the President, to stimulate investments, being convinced that Mexico's greatest need at this time is a well directed increase in general production. A system of broadened credit facilities is to be put into practice that will be of immense benefit to both industry and agriculture. A new law governing credit institutions, the organic law of the *Nacional Financiera, S. A.*, and amendments to the organic bank law were passed with the principal objective of facilitating credit for production. Mexico has an uneven trade balance, with a great surplus of imports over exports, and since the war has cut off many former markets and raised new problems of transportation, the situation has become even more critical. The Government's plan is, therefore, to initiate, develop, and expand basic industries as much as possible, in order to avoid the necessity of such great volumes of imports; and at the same time, it is hoped to establish industries for the manufacture of merchandise that can be disposed of in markets that are now open. For the purpose of attracting capital, the law regulating manufacturing industries was passed, fixing privileges and exemptions for new and necessary industries. New enterprises were established in the country during the year with a total capital of 16,925,444 pesos and a probable annual production value of some 34 million pesos. They give employment to 2,950 workers.

The Government's entire economic policy, said the President, has been directed toward solving in a practical manner all these grave problems of production, distribution, and consumption. Ordinary problems have been made more difficult by the adverse effects of the war. European markets, which formerly absorbed approximately half of Mexico's exports, are now virtually closed, receiving only 0.9 percent of present exports; the United States takes 90.6 percent, and other countries of this continent 5.8 percent; and the total volume itself has undergone a considerable decrease. The import situation is analogous, 94.5 percent of imports coming from the United States, 4.5 percent from other American nations, and only 1.7 percent from Europe. The necessity of disposing of the greatest possible quantity of exportable products through the only channels that remain open and the country's firm desire to cooperate in the inter-American solidarity movement, determined the Government's action in expediting the recent export control measure and the commercial agreement with the United States. (See page 671 of the BULLETIN for November 1941.)

Several other economic problems of a domestic nature were touched upon by the President and explanations given of attempts at adjustment. These included such items as the deficiency of national wheat production, which the Government is making decided efforts to remedy; the creation of the *Sociedad Nacional Distribuidora y Reguladora* (National Distribution

and Regulation Corporation), with a capital of 2,161,800 pesos, for the purpose of equalizing and stabilizing prices; the control of monopolies; and the coffee quota agreement.

Preliminary to the new credit and banking laws, the Government took steps to arrange its affairs with the Bank of Mexico by funding the loans that it had previously obtained for operating expenses. Fifty-year public works bonds were offered for sale and the Bank received enough bonds to cover the advances made to the Government up to December 31, 1940. To finance certain public works which could no longer well be postponed but which the Government's current resources could not cover, it was decided to resort again to public credit. A debt conversion plan was formulated for the 1936 and 1940 highway bonds and to date practically all the outstanding bonds have been converted, which, said the President, demonstrates public confidence in the Government's new bond issues. Debt service on these bonds during the current year amounts to 5,814,000 pesos. A new loan of 50 million pesos was authorized for continuation of work on the Pan American, Tampico, Zihuatanejo, Durango-San Diego, and San Ignacio-Mazatlán highways. To continue the work of the previous Administration on new railway lines, a decree of December 31, 1940, authorized a loan of 12 million pesos. To meet the problem of scarcity of electrical power, a loan of 10 million pesos was authorized on the same date for construction of a hydroelectric plant in the State of Mexico. Still another loan of 50 million pesos was authorized for irrigation projects.

Treasury receipts during the first six months of the year were 268,139,300 pesos, which surpassed estimates by some 36,278,000 pesos. The Government adhered to its policy of limiting expenditures to income and on August 31, 1941, had a treasury balance of 20,738,267 pesos.

Recognizing that Mexico, without resigning itself to being an exclusively agricultural country, is still a nation in which agriculture is of fundamental importance, the Government's activities have been directed toward facilitating the maximum use of natural resources. In planning production, due weight has been given to the requirements of domestic consumption, the transitory conditions that prevail in foreign commerce at present, and Mexico's prospects once world conditions resume a more normal trend. It is particularly desirable, said the President, to stimulate production of such items as wheat and corn, that now must be imported. No effort is being spared to modernize agricultural methods, increase crop production, and improve cattle production through the importation of selected stock. The 1940 budget allocation for large scale irrigation projects was increased by 20 million pesos and for small scale projects by 1.5 million pesos over the previous year's allotments. Of the 8,350,000 pesos of credit advanced by the National Bank of Agricultural Credit, 6,176,000 pesos were for equipment, with preference being given to funds destined for cotton, corn, and wheat cultivation. The National Bank of Ejidal Credit during the year authorized credit transactions totaling 55,460,662 pesos.

In regard to agrarian reform, the Government's action has been motivated by the general purpose of concluding as soon as possible the land distribution program, with due attention at the same time to the credit services and ejidal organization that should accompany such distribution. The agrarian program's maximum intensity was reached in 1937, said the President, and it has necessarily been decreasing in volume since then. During the year Sep-

tember 1, 1940–August 31, 1941, a total of 2,075,535 acres was distributed among 36,340 persons, 310,000 acres of this amount being increases of existing ejidos and the remainder new distributions.

The Government has tried in every way to facilitate the granting of mining concessions and has appealed to military authorities and State governments to give the necessary protection to title holders. At the same time it has urged labor authorities to try to reach quick and equitable solutions of all mining conflicts. Explorations have been intensified and official mining laboratories have been established. Mining production in the first quarter of 1941 was at approximately the same level as in 1940. To assist small miners to work their mines, the *Comisión de Fomento Minero* (Mining Development Commission) has acquired two development plants and has two more under construction. The present production capacity of these plants is 250 tons daily, and when the new plants are completed, this figure will be increased by 150 tons.

The national production of electrical power is 500,000 kilowatts, a figure that is insufficient to meet new requirements. It is necessary to increase existing systems by at least 90,000 kilowatts by the end of 1942, and steps have been taken to supplement private enterprise by government aid in the installation of new plants. The National Power Commission during the last 12 months completed plants and power lines in a vast area in Michoacán, Tepic, and Morelos, and plans for future installations are well under way.

During the year work on Federal highways—either surveying, road laying, surfacing or resurfacing—totaled approximately 4,000 miles and represented a Federal expenditure of 15,206,000 pesos. Work on 91 federally-aided State roads, with a total extension of approximately 7,780 miles, cost 24,167,000 pesos, of which the sum of 14,742,000 pesos was met from federal funds and 9,425,000 from state funds.

Problems of the oil industry have been many—loss of markets because of reprisals on account of the expropriation, difficulties of getting machinery, and finally, lack of transportation. Production in the first half of 1941 totaled 20,068,231 barrels, which is a little less than the average in 1940, but the present tendency toward an increase in exports, which has been considerably helped by the recent additions to maritime transportation through governmental seizure of 12 Axis ships in Mexican harbors, imposes the necessity for an increased production.

Exports in 1940 were valued at approximately 16 million dollars and in the first half of 1941 at 6 million dollars. This latter figure may be considered satisfactory, said the President, in view of circumstances. Domestic consumption has been increasing the past three years, having advanced from a value of 154,664,000 pesos in 1938 to 191,368,000 pesos in 1940, and in the first six months of 1941, to 106,338,000 pesos.

The refining plants of Petróleos Mexicanos have been put in order and improved to an extent that has increased their capacity, in spite of delays in obtaining much needed equipment. Daily production has been increased from 89,000 barrels to 93,750 in the first half of this year.

The Government also took steps to improve the situation of independent oil producers by means of a contract effective until the end of March 1942, providing that Petróleos Mexicanos would acquire at satisfactory prices the oil that these producers had on hand and thereafter take a certain percentage of current production, amounting to about 3,500 barrels daily.

Considering the importance of proper

functioning of the National Railways in the life and economic development of the country, one of the first steps of the Administration was to modify the law governing their administration, placing administrative control again in the hands of the Government after its having been entrusted to the workers since passage of the law of April 23, 1938.

Three fundamental aspects of the railway problem required simultaneous attention: The material situation of the system, adjustment of its economic problems, and relations of the railway administration with the employees. Equipment needs included 1,800 miles of new rails, considerable track repairs, 3,000 freight cars, 300 locomotives, and an unspecified number of passenger, mail, and express cars. At the beginning of 1941 the Railways had a deficit of 19.5 million pesos for goods and services already received and 20.5 million more for materials in warehouses. Accounts due have now been decreased to 15 million pesos and 5 million pesos are available for imported materials. New rails are being laid where traffic most demands them; 1,000 modern freight cars are on order in the United States and 1,000 more are being manufactured in Mexico; 250 locomotives have been repaired and arrangements are under way to obtain 50 modern new ones in the United States.

Although the Railway's general financial system has been improved, the Government still is not fully satisfied with what has been accomplished, being anxious to guarantee the needed investment of 200,000,000 pesos for new equipment. It took steps to furnish such financing without waiting to correct certain labor conditions that hinder administrative progress, and the settlement of these labor problems is now being sought by every possible means.

A complete reorganization of the Department of Public Education was undertaken immediately after the new Administration took office, for the purpose of seeking a unification of the educational system, to establish teaching standards, correct errors, and define concrete responsibilities of educators. In cooperation with local governments the Federal Government worked to extend the facilities of primary education. There are at present 13,358 primary schools supported by the Federal Government; 7,420 supported by the States and municipalities; 977 supported jointly by federal, state, and local governments; 991 supported by mining and industrial enterprises in accordance with Article 123 of the Constitution; and 445 private schools—a total of 23,191, with a teaching personnel of 46,653 and a total attendance of 2,037,870 pupils. In the majority of these schools there are night courses for adults, and there are also 91 federal schools dedicated especially to that purpose, with 488 teachers and 8,760 students.

The federal education budget in the present year amounts to 77,850,000 pesos. Complementary educational work is also being carried on in special fields under the direction of the Departments of Public Welfare, Agriculture, National Defense, Health, Indian Affairs, and the Federal District. The activities of these divisions of the Government, together with the regular Department of Education and the local governments, bring the total educational expenditures of the nation up to more than 135,000,000 pesos.

The present Administration changed the status of the Labor Department from an autonomous bureau to a cabinet unit and, as a step toward regulation of labor problems, initiated certain reforms of the federal labor law relative to strikes. These reforms, while not affecting the right to strike that is guaranteed by the

Constitution, were aimed toward regulating the negative social effects of the exercise of that right. The Department of Labor was given broader administrative authority than the old autonomous body enjoyed, thus better capacitating it to carry on its work in behalf of the laboring masses, industry and society in general.

The Government regards improvement of health standards as one of its most urgent and fundamental objectives. At the beginning of the Administration, the sum of 2,725,000 pesos was assigned to public health. Local governments agreed to contribute approximately 2,000,000; this, added to the contributions of rural workers as a part of their cooperation in the services of rural health and social medicine, made a total of about 3.2 million pesos in local funds for the current year's public health program. Nevertheless, that sum was too small, said the President, to give all the efficiency desired, and therefore attempts were made to map out a program that would supplement in good will and zeal for service what was lacking in funds.

In the field of social welfare, government aid to the indigent, the under-privileged, the blind, sick, and aged, is being given in various ways. In addition to these usual kinds of aid, assistance to poor students has been put into effect. The Department of Public Assistance budget of 21.8 million pesos was insufficient, said the President, and it was later increased in order to meet new demands for service and to improve its efficiency.

The Government has continued its educational and economic improvement efforts on behalf of the various indigenous groups of the nation. There are at present 30 vocational agricultural schools for Indians in the country. Last January four educational centers were established, as follows: for the Aztecs in the Mexcala River region of Guerrero; for the Otomí Indians in the Mezquital Valley of Hidalgo; another for Aztecs at Coyomeapan in the Sierra de Puebla; and another for the Otomíes at Comalco, State of Mexico. These four institutions have had great success. They function in various fields, having consumers' cooperatives, dress-making shops, mills for grinding the corn, and nursery schools for preschool children.—D.M.T.

Inter-American Week at Troy, New York

WHEREAS, the City of Troy is desirous of promoting, both within its borders and throughout the nation, that mutual respect, confidence, understanding and good will among the American Republics which are essential to peace, prosperity and progress in the Western Hemisphere,

Now, Therefore, I, Frank J. Hogan, Mayor of the City of Troy, New York, in the United States of America, do hereby proclaim and appoint the week of October fifth to twelfth in the year of our Lord One Thousand Nine Hundred and Forty-One as Inter-American Week and I do recommend that all the people of the City join with our distinguished guests from the Latin American countries in the observance and celebration thereof.

This excerpt from the proclamation issued by Mayor Hogan on October 1, 1941, introduced a week in which the whole city expressed its awareness of the unity of the Western Hemisphere.

The general activities touched the life of every citizen. The streets and buildings of the city were decorated with flags of the the 21 American republics. Special Latin American programs were carried on in the public schools. Two exhibits of literary material were held, the one at the Troy Public Library consisting of books, posters, and pictures lent by the Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union, the other at the Spanish House of Russell Sage College showing books on Latin

America from sixty different publishing houses. Pre-Columbian art from the Museum of Natural History of New York; colonial art from the Brooklyn Museum: the sculptures by Srta. Marina Núñez del Prado of Bolivia (see BULLETIN for July 1941); Latin American costumes from the Museum of Costume Arts of New York: and Latin American postage stamps and coins were to be seen at the Masonic Temple. The city's stores not only had window displays of agricultural products from other American nations and of material furnished by transportation companies to and in Latin America, but also offered for sale merchandise from the "Good Neighbor" countries.

From the 8th through the 11th there were special ceremonies, centering about the 25th anniversary of Russell Sage College, in which other educational institutions of the city, notably Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, La Salle Institute, and Emma Willard School, cooperated.

Distinguished guests participating in the program included Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt; members of the diplomatic corps and leaders in business and educational circles of Latin America; officials of the United States Government; Latin American musicians; and members of the Pan American Union. Three general meetings were held, devoted respectively to the culture and art of the Latin American countries; the economic relations of the 21 American republics and how to improve them; and education, social welfare, and labor problems in the other American republics. A special meeting for women discussed the women of the Americas and their part in promoting inter-American understanding and good will. Mrs. Roosevelt led the discussion, and the panel was composed of representatives of Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, Panama, and the United States. A concert of Latin American music was given by Elsie Houston, s prano, of Brazil, and Jesús María Sanrom pianist, of Puerto Rico. Special radi programs from station WTRY dealt wi the music of Latin America, a round-tab discussion of education, sports, and cu toms in the 21 republics, and intervie with the Latin American guests.

The climax of the celebration at Russ Sage was the college convocation, at whic after addresses had been given on Pa American relations, Mrs. Roosevelt pr sented the following candidates for ho orary degrees: Master of Humane Lette Marina Núñez del Prado (Bolivia) an María Josephina R. Albano (Brazil Doctor of Laws, Ana Rosa S. de Martín Guerrero (Argentina); Doctor of Human Letters, Graciela Mandujano (Chile) an Concha Romero James (Mexico); an Doctor of Pedagogy, Ester Neira de Calv (Panama).

The week closed on a gay note, with special illumination of Sage Park an public dancing in the streets to Lati American music; the dancers were invite to attend in appropriate costume. Ther were exhibitions of Latin American dance and conga and rhumba contests, wi prizes for the latter and for the be costumes.

Cuban Child Study Laboratory

Regulations for the National Child Stud Laboratory of Cuba, which was authorize by a decree of January 14, 1941, wer issued by President Batista on July 22, 194

The field of the Laboratory is children elementary school age. It will study an report on the physical, psychological, a tistic, and other development of Cuba school children; their home environmen and its influence on education, especial any contrasts between rural and urb surroundings; the standards to be appli

in school buildings and equipment; the type of school suitable for each town; curricula and the system to be used in grading, promotions, and credits; and changes in methods of teaching.

Although the Laboratory was created especially to improve public education, its services will be available to private schools and individuals, provided that such cooperation does not interfere with its official duties.

Cuban Institute of Health

The government of Cuba, feeling that one of the prime duties of the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare is to prevent infectious diseases and supervise the standards of food, beverages, and medicaments offered to the public, created by a decree of July 5, 1941, the National Institute of Health to carry out these functions. The new organization will take over the activities and the necessary equipment and documents of the National Health Laboratory, the General Vaccine Center, the Finlay Institute, and the Pharmacobiological Laboratory of the National Tuberculosis Council. The Oriente National Laboratory in Santiago, Cuba, will continue its work as a branch of the National Institute of Health, and the various laboratories, such as bacteriology, anatomopathology, and bromatology, of the Finlay Institute,

Courtesy of the Pan American Society of San Francisco

GOVERNOR OLSON ENTERTAINS LATIN AMERICAN CONSULAR CORPS AT THE CALIFORNIA STATE FAIR

and the Biological Laboratories of the Veterinary Service of the Army, are instructed in the decree to cooperate with the new Institute.

The work of the Institute will be done by four sections, of biology, bromatology, hydrology, and pharmacology, respectively.

Child welfare institutions in Ecuador

Institutions for the protection and care of children—such as day nurseries, convalescent homes, orphanages, and homes for neglected children—were first definitely made a form of government activity in Ecuador by a decree issued on January 27, 1938, and made retroactive to the first of the year as regards special taxes to provide the necessary funds. Religious orders have done much work of this kind since early colonial days.

With the adoption of the national code for minors on August 1 of the same year, a definite administrative program for child welfare activities was provided, under four organizations.

The National Council for Minors sets the standards for other administrative bodies and issues all regulations concerning the welfare and protection of minors. It also administers funds for such purposes, including those of private organizations.

The health of mothers and children and all hospitals, clinics, and medical and allied services established to care for them is under the Bureau of Public Welfare.

The General Bureau of Institutions has charge of day nurseries, orphanages, correctional schools, camps, playgrounds, and similar institutions for underprivileged, neglected, and delinquent minors.

Juvenile Courts, each composed of a lawyer, an educator, and a physician, will function in Quito, Guayaquil, and such other cities as the National Council for Minors may select.

Immediately upon the passage of the 1938 legislation, day nurseries, training schools, homes for orphans and neglected children, fresh-air camps, and other institutions were created. The request of any community for one or more of these services was promptly granted. As the Minister of Social Welfare and Labor pointed out in his annual report dated June 1941, the experience of the last three years shows that such action was hasty and the results, on the whole, were disappointing. The institutions were housed in rented and often unsuitable quarters and there was a dearth of adequately trained persons to take charge of them.

The government would have liked to start all over again, with an initial three-year period in which the funds established for this purpose would be used for constructing throughout the nation buildings especially designed for the various activities envisaged in the program, and for training a staff of men and women for the special tasks involved. But in view of the fact that many of the institutions already functioning were rendering valuable public services that could not be discontinued without causing suffering and undoing good, the following program was adopted late in 1940:

No new institution will be established for the present, and those whose results have been unsatisfactory will be abolished. Wherever possible, services will be amalgamated, to cut overhead costs, and unnecessary positions will be abolished. The money thus saved will be used for the construction of new buildings and repairs on those now in use.

The savings of ten months, while considerable, proved insufficient to construct the needed buildings at once. Therefore a loan of more than 1,500,000 sucres was

arranged with the Private Employees' and Laborers' Security Fund, through the Central Bank, to be repaid by monthly installments of 30,000 sucres over a period of four years. From the proceeds of this loan the Vocational School at Quito will be finished and similar schools in Guayaquil and Portoviejo constructed, and three children's shelters will be built in Quito, three in Guayaquil, and one in each of thirteen important cities in other parts of the republic.

With respect to the National Council for Minors, the report of the Minister of Social Welfare said that it was planned to have its members make a personal inspection of all the institutions under its care, each member to be responsible for one or more types of service. In this task they will be aided by the physicians attached to the institution and by the members of the local Juvenile Court.

The statistical office of the Council reported that as of 1941 the Council is responsible for 20 such institutions: 12 day nurseries, 6 rehabilitation schools, one convalescent home, and the home for the aged, the blind, and deaf-mutes.

The task of the director of medical social service has been aided by the appointment of 25 social workers, who completed early in 1941 a special two-year course, started as soon as the first child welfare homes were established. Careful inspection has kept children with communicable diseases from the day nurseries. The records of weight, growth, and diet kept at the nurseries have been an aid in educating the mothers as to proper methods to be followed at home.

There are two polyclinics for children, one in Quito and one in Guayaquil. Each has four departments, dealing respectively with social background, medicine and anthropology, mental tests, and related information.

The Juvenile Courts are considered to have the double function of prevention and of cure. Three are at present functioning, in Quito, Guayaquil, and Portoviejo.

Comparatively little has been done in preventive work so far, although a beginning has been made. With the help of officials in the Labor Bureau, statistics are being compiled on minors plying street trades, such as lottery ticket venders or bootblacks, and social workers will provide data on the conditions under which such children live and work. For problem children who cannot be considered delinquent, a system of placing them in selected families has been instituted.

The Juvenile Courts in Quito and Guayaquil have been especially active. In Quito, from September 1940, 190 minors were committed to institutions and 130 placed on parole; 38 cases were dismissed. During the first four months of 1941, 13 of the cases brought before the Court in Guayaquil were dismissed; of the others, 89 minors were committed, and 6 sent to Quito.

Working in close cooperation with the polyclinics and the Juvenile Courts are the observation homes, where children are sent for a preliminary study before decisions on their cases are reached. At present these institutions, so far established only in Quito and Guayaquil, are working under difficulties, for they have no separate quarters and have been forced to function in separate wings of the vocational schools.

The rehabilitation schools have been established on the theory that rehabilitation comes first and education second. Emphasis therefore is on handicrafts, manual trades, and small industries, rather than on academic subjects. The children are given special training in diet, health, and personal hygiene.

The success of this system has been

particularly evident in the school for boys at Quito. Each has his own garden plot, and the products of the class in soapmaking are not only used by the other rehabilitation schools but also sold to the public. The Ministry has offered an annual prize of a box of tools for the outstanding student in each subject.

In the girls' schools, the emphasis is on sewing and laundry work. In the former classes, the girls make clothing for themselves and for children in other institutions, and in the latter they do some work for the public.

Many children living in the coastal areas need to stay for a period at a higher altitude to rid themselves of tropical ailments or to improve their health. For such a special camp having a capacity of 110 children has been established at Conocoto, in the Province of Pichincha. During the first four months of 1941 four groups of children were sent there, and the capacity of the camp has had to be stretched to the utmost.—B. N.

Committee on Inter-American Cooperation in the Dominican Republic

A Committee on Inter-American Cooperation was established on August 18, 1941, in Ciudad Trujillo on the initiative of Señorita Minerva Bernardino, Vice Chairman of the Inter-American Commission of Women, and in conformity with a regulation of that organization. The objectives of the new Dominican Committee will be to widen the sphere of women's activities in the Dominican Republic and to strengthen international relations in the Americas by cooperating in the development of the program and duties of the Inter-American Commission of Women.

Only those women who are sympathetic to the aims and purposes of the Inter-American Commission of Women and who have been previously designated are eligible for membership in the new Committee. Señorita Bernardino, because of her status as her country's representative on the Commission of Women, is automatically chairman of the Dominican Committee, and the other members are: Señoras Isabel Mayer, Marina Trujillo de García, Celeste Woss y Gil, Floripez Mieses de Carbonell, Consuelo de González, Silveria de Rodríguez Demorizi, Julieta de Modrano, Nieves Trujillo de Castillo, Matilde García de Ricart, Milady Félix de l'Official, and the Señoritas Margarita Peynado, Josefita Amiama, Carmen Lara Fernández, Lidia Pichardo, Lolita Patiño, and Amalia Aybar.

Erratum

The frontispiece of the BULLETIN for May 1941, illustrating the article *Indigenous Influences on the Colonial Architecture of Latin America* by Mario J. Buschiazzo, should read "The Cathedral of Puno, Peru" instead of "The Church of San Sebastián, Cuzco."

424540—41

PUBLICATIONS OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

The monthly illustrated BULLETIN is published in three editions. Subscription rates are:

English edition, in all countries of the Pan American Union . . . . . $1.50 per year
Spanish edition, " " " " " " . . . . . 1.00 "
Portuguese edition," " " " " " . . . . . 1.00 "

Single copies, any edition, 15 cents each

An additional charge of 75 cents per year, on each edition, for subscriptions in countries outside the Pan American Union

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

AMERICAN NATION SERIES

Illustrated—5 cents each

Argentina
Bolivia
Brazil
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Guatemala
Haiti
Honduras
Mexico
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Uruguay
Venezuela

AMERICAN CITY SERIES

Illustrated—5 cents each

Asunción
Bogotá
Buenos Aires
Caracas
Ciudad Trujillo
Guatemala
Habana
La Paz
Lima
Managua
Maracaibo
Mexico City
Montevideo
Panama
Quito
Rio de Janeiro
San José
San Salvador
Santiago (Chile)
Santiago (Cuba)
São Paulo
Tegucigalpa

COMMODITIES SERIES

Illustrated—5 cents each

Alpacas
Asphalt
Bananas
Cattle and Pampas
Chicle
Coal and Iron
Coca
Cocoa
Coconuts
Coffee
Copper
Nitrate Fields
Oils and Waxes
Quebracho
Quinine
Rubber
Sugar
Tagua
Tanning Materials
Tin
Wool
Yerba Maté

FOREIGN TRADE SERIES

5 cents each

Latest foreign trade statistics of the Latin American Republics, compiled from official sources

COMMERCIAL PAN AMERICA

$1.00 a year

A monthly mimeographed review dealing with economic and financial subjects

PANORAMA

10 cents each

A mimeographed review devoted to matters of interest in inter-American intellectual cooperation

THE PAN AMERICAN BOOKSHELF

$1.00 a year

A monthly annotated list of the books and magazines received in the Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union

BIBLIOGRAPHIC SERIES

Bibliographies on Pan American topics, such as Inter-American Relations, History and Description, Children's Books on Latin America, Hemisphere Defense, Bookstores and Publishers in Latin America, and Material in English on Latin American Literature.

COOPERATIVE SERIES

10 cents each

Articles on various phases of the cooperative movement

A COMPLETE LIST AND PRICES WILL BE SENT ON REQUEST

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1941

UNITED STATES
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
Gulf of Mexico
Caribbean Sea
WEST INDIES
CENTRAL AMERICA
SOUTH AMERICA
PACIFIC
OCEAN
Seattle
Spokane
Tacoma
Butte
Helena
Portland
Boise
Minneapolis
St. Paul
Pierre
Chicago
Omaha
Cheyenne
Laramie
Ogden
Salt Lake City
Sacramento
Carson
Stockton
San Francisco
Los Angeles
San Diego
Santa Fe
Phoenix
El Paso
Dallas
Houston
Austin
San Antonio
Galveston
Arthur
Tampa
New Orleans
Mobile
Jackson
Memphis
Little Rock
Atlanta
Charleston
Savannah
Jacksonville
Tallahassee
Nashville
Chattanooga
Louisville
Cincinnati
Columbus
Toledo
Detroit
Cleveland
Buffalo
Pittsburg
Albany
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Washington
Richmond
Norfolk
Raleigh
C. HATTERAS
Wilmington
BERMUDA IS.
BAHAMA Is.
SAN SALVADOR
Havana
Matanzas
Port au Prince
Santo Domingo
San Juan
Porto Rico
JAMAICA
Kingston
HAITI
Belize
GUATEMALA
HONDURAS
NICARAGUA
COSTA RICA
Tegucigalpa
Managua
San Salvador
San José
Panama
Puerto Cabello
La Guaira
Caracas
TRINIDAD
VENEZUELA
Georgetown
Paramaribo
Cayenne
GUIANA
Medellin
Bogota
COLOMBIA
Buenaventura
Popayan
GALAPAGOS Is.
Quito
Guayaquil
ECUADOR
Paita
Iquitos
Trujillo
Chimbote
Cerro de Pasco
Lima
Callao
Cuzco
Arequipa
Mollendo
La Paz
BOLIVIA
Oruro
Sucre
Potosi
Arica
Iquique
Antofagasta
Taltal
Copiapo
ST. FELIX
Coquimbo
Valparaiso
JUAN FERNANDEZ Is.
Santiago
Concepcion
Talcahuano
Valdivia
Corral
Puerto Montt
Gulf of Penas
Rio Negro
Manaos
Amazon
Obidos
Santarem
Para
St. Louis do Maranhão
Pernambuco
MARAJO ISL.
Rio Madeira
Porto Velho
Cachoeira Falls
Corumba
Cuyaba
Goyaz
Diamantina
Ouro Preto
Victoria
Rio de Janeiro
Sao Paulo
Santos
Curitiba
Asuncion
PARAGUAY R.
Tucuman
Corrientes
Parana R.
Porto Alegre
Rio Grande do Sul
Montevideo
Buenos Aires
La Plata
Plata R.
C. CORRIENTES
Bahia Blanca
Gulf of San Matias
Rawson
Rivadavia
San Julian
Santa Cruz
Puerto Gallegos
MALVINAS IS.
Strait of Magellan
Punta Arenas
TIERRA DEL FUEGO
CAPE HORN
SOUTH GEORGIA